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A

NARRATIVE HISTORY

OF

THE UNITED STATES

FOR THE USE OF SCHOOLS

BY

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PREFACE.

SOLOMON says, "Of making many books there is no end;" and this is especially true of schoolbooks. When, therefore, another schoolbook is added to the vast number already published, it behooves the author to give good and sufficient reasons for its existence. These he proposes to give; but whether they will satisfy the public and his fellow-teachers time alone will tell.

First. — The author taught the History of the United States for many years; and he has therefore treated the subject from the standpoint of a teacher.

Second. — His experience has enabled him to give due importance to the salient and important events, and to pass over lightly those that are unimportant; or, in other words, he has exercised the teacher's duty of selection for the purpose of making the instruction simple and impressive.

Third. — The two greatest events of recent times — the Revolutionary War, and the War of the Rebellion, each in itself almost a miracle, the former achieving independence, and the latter the perpetuity of the union and the abolition of slavery — occupy more than half the volume, and are related mainly in a description of campaigns, north and south, east and west. At the same time, great moral events receive their proper share of attention.

Fourth. — The division of the book into chapters, with an appropriate quotation, generally a stanza or two of poetry, at the beginning of each chapter, explanatory of what follows, will tend not only to impress the subject matter on the mind of the student, but it will serve to cultivate in some degree his literary taste; for doubtless most readers will commit the

quotations to memory. Take, for example, Byron's description of Washington as the "Cincinnatus of the West," and the stanza which compares Lincoln to a "Pilot" in a great storm, and he would be a dull teacher indeed who did not direct his pupils to learn them *by heart.*

Fifth. — The whole tone of the book will create and foster a love of country and of the great men who are the peculiar treasures of the Republic. No pains have been spared to point out the courage, the heroism, and the indomitable will of the men who created and preserved the greatest and strongest nation of the earth.

Sixth. — The work is free from sectarian bigotry; the narrative is not interrupted by notes or questions, and therefore it may be read "without stop or stay," like any other story.

Of course the book is a compilation — that, and nothing more.

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A NARRATIVE HISTORY OF THE UNITED STATES.

CHAPTER I.

THE NORTHMEN.

"For the old seafaring men
Came to me now and then
With their sagas of the seas;—
Of Iceland and of Greenland
And the stormy Hebrides."

ALTHOUGH America is called the New World, it is, according to Professor Agassiz, older than any of the other continents. But old as it is, it was unknown to Europeans until about the year 1000 of the Christian era, when it was discovered, but not settled, by a strong and warlike people who inhabited the Scandinavian peninsula. They were the famous Northmen who, under their vikings, planted colonies in Russia, France, and Great Britain. Their own country being rocky and poor, but full of fine timber, they were naturally led to seek their living from the sea, which abounded in fish. So they built very strong boats, called galleys, and learned to navigate them not only with oars, but with sails. Their dexterity as sailors, their courage in war, and their great bodily strength, made them the terror of all the neighboring nations.

The Northmen.

They were a tall, fair-haired, blue-eyed, and handsome race, but ferocious pirates and robbers, who seized everything by land or sea that they could lay their hands on, and never scrupled to put men, women, and children to the sword when

their passions were aroused by the excitement of battle. Cruelty, however, was so general in those times, that perhaps the Northmen were not much worse than their neighbors.

As the mariner's compass was unknown to these sea rovers, they were obliged to guide their course by means of the heavenly bodies; but as the heavens, in these northern latitudes, are often hidden from view for several days and nights in succession by heavy black clouds, their vessels were frequently driven hundreds of miles in the wrong direction. Naddod, in the year 860, was thus driven by a great storm, and by accident discovered Iceland, and gave it the name Snowland.

Naddod's discovery.

A famous viking named Flokko, when starting on his voyage, took with him three ravens to guide him to the island. The first he let loose returned to the Faroe Islands, which proved to Flokko that these islands were the nearest land; some days later he sent out the second, which returned to the ship, proving that there was no land in sight; when the third was let loose it flew away toward the west, and Flokko followed its course until he reached the island. He spent one winter there with his colony; but he found the climate so cold that, after losing all his cattle, he was forced to return. He gave forth very dismal accounts of the island, which he called Iceland, and said it was totally unfit for human habitation.

Flokko.

The first successful colony was established about 880 by Ingolf, who was compelled to seek a refuge in Iceland from the tyranny of the Norwegian king. He founded a colony remarkable for the freedom of its government and the general cultivation of its people. The colony was increased by emigrants from the mother country, and continued to exist for several centuries.

Ingolf.

Eric the Red, a man of savage character, was obliged to seek in exile safety for some crime, and so he sailed away to Gunnbiorn's Rocks, which had been discovered in the previous century. These rocks were off a new coast on which Eric

landed and lived for three years. On his return to Iceland he gave glowing accounts of the beauty and fertility of the country, in order to induce people to go to it. With the same object in view, he called it Greenland. The crafty Eric's falsehoods were successful, for he returned with a great many deluded followers to add to the strength of his colony.

Eric the Red.

The sons of Eric the Red were the first Europeans to land on the American continent. And the event came to pass in this way: There was a sea rover named Herjulf, who had a son called Biorn. Father and son had been in the habit of making summer voyages to Norway, and spending the winter at their home in Iceland. In the year 985 Biorn on his return home had learned that his father had gone off to Greenland to Eric the Red. Without unloading his ships, he sailed over the unknown sea to join his father; but thick fogs set in, and a north wind drove them toward the south for many days, until they came in sight of land which he knew was not Greenland; for he saw no high mountains covered with ice and snow, but a level country wooded to the water's edge. He viewed the coast at three different places, but refused to land, as he was anxious to meet his father. There is no doubt that this land was the American continent. Biorn was driven northward by a fair south wind, and at last reached Greenland.

Leif the Lucky, son of Eric the Red, fired by ambition to discover new lands, went to Greenland, bought Biorn's ship, and manned it with a crew of thirty-five sailors, making Biorn his pilot. In the year 1001, Leif reached Newfoundland; but finding it barren, and covered with ice, he set sail, and landed at Nova Scotia, which he found low and flat and covered with woods. Once more he turned his ship southward and westward, and landed on the coast of Rhode Island, where he built a house and passed the winter. He named the country Vinland on account of large quantities of grapes found by one of his men, a German. Leif

Voyage of Leif the Lucky.

was probably the first European to land on the shores of the New World.

His brother Thorvald explored the coast of New England, Long Island Sound, and the harbor of New York. It was on this voyage that natives were first seen, who were so small that they were supposed to be Esquimaux. Thorvald captured eight of them, and cruelly put them to death. To avenge the murder of their companions, the natives attacked the Northmen, who fled to their ships; and in the fight which followed, Thorvald was mortally wounded by an arrow. In accordance with his own wishes, he was buried on the shore of Massachusetts Bay.

Thorvald.

Several other voyages were made to Vinland by the Northmen; but all attempts to establish a permanent colony utterly failed, owing, doubtless, to the savage and restless nature of the sea rovers, who were never content to remain long in one place. In a short time Vinland and the American continent were lost sight of and forgotten, and remained unknown to Europeans until the appearance of the greatest of all discoverers, Christopher Columbus.

CHAPTER II.

COLUMBUS.

"Skilled in the globe and sphere, he gravely stands,
And with his compass measures seas and lands."

NEARLY five hundred years after the discovery of America by Leif the Lucky, the republics of Genoa and Venice had become the great maritime powers of Europe; and through the Red Sea and the Mediterranean they commanded the commerce of the East. Portugal, in her efforts to compete with them, sent out several famous navigators for the purpose of discovering a shorter route to the East Indies by sailing around the southern cape of Africa. They sailed under the patronage of Prince Henry of Portugal, surnamed the Navigator, a man distinguished for his learning and patriotism. He devoted his time to the science of navigation and to fitting out exploring expeditions. Doubtless it was owing in a great measure to his generous efforts that such an impetus was given to maritime adventure. But it was reserved for an Italian, and not a Portuguese, sailor born in the humblest walk of life, to give to Spain a New World.

Prince Henry of Portugal.

Columbus was born, according to the best authorities, in 1447, in the republic of Genoa. At the age of fourteen he chose the hardy and dangerous life of a sailor. Determined to rise in his chosen calling, he carefully studied the sciences of geography, astronomy, and navigation. Early in life he made a voyage to the coast of Guinea, and another to the island of Iceland. Perhaps in the latter he may have heard something of the Scandinavian discoveries of the tenth and eleventh centuries. He married the widow of an old Portuguese navigator named Perestrelo, whose charts and journals came into his possession, and afforded him amusement and instruction.

Early life of Columbus.

After a great deal of thinking and reasoning in regard to the earth's rotundity, in which he firmly believed, and in regard to its size, concerning which he had only a vague notion, he arrived at the conclusion that the Portuguese navigators in their attempts to reach India had sailed too far to the south, and that a shorter and easier route could be found by sailing directly toward the west. Hitherto the enormous wealth of the far Cathay (as Japan and China were then called) had been carried overland into Europe, in caravans, through the deserts

Columbus.

of Syria and Arabia, or by the way of the Red Sea and Egypt into the Mediterranean. This long, difficult, and dangerous journey might be avoided by the westward passage, which Columbus reasoned was not only possible, but practicable.

Application for assistance.

No private man, unless he were very rich, could undertake without assistance such an enterprise as fired the heart of Columbus. He therefore applied in vain for aid, first to the republic of Genoa, and then to Portugal. He next applied to Ferdinand, King of Spain. In the meantime he had sent his brother Barthol-

omew to seek assistance from Henry VII. of England; but being captured and detained a prisoner by pirates, the latter had no opportunity to present his plans to the English King until after Columbus had obtained the patronage of Spain.

Ferdinand of Aragon had married Isabella of Castile and Leon, thus uniting the three kingdoms, and making himself one of the strongest sovereigns of the age. He was able, crafty, and ambitious; she was pious, wise, and good. They had waged a crusade against the Moors, and driven them out of Granada, their last stronghold, into Africa. This religious war had cost a great deal of money, so that when it was ended the sovereigns were too poor to furnish Columbus with an outfit. But the Queen was so impressed with the boldness and grandeur of his project, and particularly with the idea of converting the Indians to Christianity, that she offered to pawn the crown jewels to defray his expenses. From this sacrifice, however, she was saved by Louis Santangel, an officer of the court, who advanced the money, which amounted to only two thousand five hundred crowns.

Ferdinand and Isabella

The necessary preparations were now made; a year's provisions were placed on board three small vessels, named the *Santa Maria*, the *Pinta*, and the *Niña*, the first only having a deck, and being about as large as a hundred ton schooner.

On the 3d of August, 1492, Columbus sailed from the port of Palos with a crew of ninety men. He reached the Canary Islands on the 12th of the same month, and remained until the 6th of September, making repairs and laying in wood and water. He then started on his great voyage, sailing a greater distance from land than any other navigator had ever done before. Every strange sight alarmed the ignorant and superstitious sailors. Their minds were filled with a nameless dread as day after day they plowed their way through an unknown sea. They clamored to return, and even threatened to throw Columbus overboard. But he, with the native craft which often accompanies the highest order of

The start.

intellect, explained everything and promised everything. He held out the inducement of rewards to those who would obey.

Discovery of the Bahama Islands.

Finally, after trials and dangers which would have crushed the spirit of a man less resolute and vigorous, Columbus discovered land on the 12th of October. The land was Guanahani, one of the Bahama Islands, which he named San Salvador.

He spent several months sailing among the islands, to which he gave the name West Indies, under the erroneous belief that they were a portion of the East Indies. Leaving a colony of thirty-nine men behind him, he returned to Spain with the two smaller vessels, the largest having been wrecked some time previously. On the homeward voyage he was overtaken by a storm so dreadful that he expected every moment that his ships would go to the bottom. During this danger he wrote an account of his discovery, and carefully sealing it in a water-tight cask, committed it to the sea, in the hope that it might be washed ashore, or picked up by some passing vessel, so that his wonderful discovery might not be lost to the world. The two little vessels — hardly better than open boats — survived the storm, and arrived safe in Spain. Columbus was received by the King and Queen with all the honors that his courage and skill deserved.

In the spring of 1493 Columbus started out on his second voyage with a well-equipped fleet of seventeen ships. He directed his course so as to reach the thirty-nine colonists whom he had left behind; but they were all dead — from what cause was never known. He discovered many islands; but his explorations were embarrassed by the presence of several poor and lazy noblemen whose only purpose in making the voyage was the acquisition of wealth without work. They found means to complain to the King that Columbus did not use proper efforts to secure the gold which abounded in great quantities. Ferdinand being suspicious and greedy, sent out a spy to report the conduct of the great navigator. Columbus, however, suddenly returned

Columbus's second voyage.

THE NEW WORLD

WITH ROUTES OF DISCOVERIES

to Spain to confront and confound his enemies. The gold and silver and other productions of the West Indies which he exhibited soon restored him to the favor of the court.

For his third voyage he was provided with fourteen vessels, eight to convey provisions, and six to carry on his explorations. This time he sailed farther to the south, and discovered Trinidad and the mainland of the continent. On reaching the colony he found disorder and mutiny. Again his enemies accused him to the King of disloyalty and other misdemeanors. At length the ungrateful Ferdinand broke faith with the hero who had given him a new world, deprived him of his rank and command, and superseded him by an impoverished nobleman, who sent him home a prisoner in chains. The captain of the ship in which he was taken to Spain kindly offered to strike off his fetters; but this favor Columbus refused to accept.

Continent discovered.

The crafty King, either ashamed of his own meanness, or afraid of his subjects, ordered Columbus to be released, invited him to court, and apologized for the conduct of his governor, whom he promised to recall. He also promised to restore Columbus to his rank of admiral of all the lands and seas discovered by him; but he violated his plighted word in a shameful manner. Columbus was unable to forget the degradation and injustice inflicted upon him. He hung up his fetters in his bedroom, and ordered them to be placed in his grave.

Columbus made his fourth and last voyage in 1502, accompanied by his son Ferdinand and his brother Bartholomew; but nothing of importance was discovered except Honduras and the Isthmus of Darien. His fleet was shattered in a storm; and after many trials and sufferings he returned to Spain. His friend and patroness, Isabella, was now dead; and worn out with hardships and ill health, he spent the last year of his life in a vain endeavor to recover his rights. He died at the age of fifty-nine, a victim to the pride and prejudice of the nobles, and to the greed and ingratitude of the King.

Fourth voyage, and death.

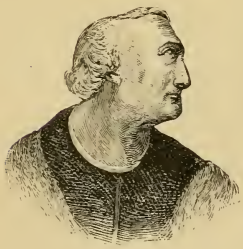
CHAPTER III.

EARLY DISCOVERERS AND EXPLORERS.

"O'er the glad waters of the dark blue sea,
Our thoughts as boundless, and our souls as free;
Far as the breeze can bear, the billows foam,
Survey our empire and behold our home."

COLUMBUS was cheated not only out of his rank and command, but out of his right to give his name to the continent he had discovered. Alonso de Ojeda, who had sailed with him in his second voyage, was commander of an expedition, which, following in the track of Columbus, reached the mainland at Paria in 1499, one year later than Columbus. With Ojeda sailed Amerigo Vespucci, a Florentine merchant, who published a book descriptive of the New World, which was named after him *America*.

Amerigo Vespucci.



Amerigo Vespucci.

Henry VII. of England was a mean and avaricious monarch, anxious to curb the power of the nobles, and to build up a commercial class on whose fidelity he could rely. Hearing accounts of the discoveries of Columbus, and of the gold and silver which he had brought to Spain from the newly discovered lands, he resolved, if possible, to obtain a portion of the enormous riches of the far Cathay. It had been his policy to invite to England merchants from all parts of Europe, and especially from Genoa and Venice, then the greatest commercial cities of the world.

One of these merchants was a skillful mariner named John Cabot, born in Venice, and residing in Bristol. He had three

sons, Lewis, Sebastian, and Sanctius, all, like himself, educated sailors. By his knowledge of geography, he concluded that by sailing more to the north than Columbus had done, he could reach the East Indies by a much shorter route. Having explained this matter to the King, he received a commission to carry out his project. The Cabots.

Accompanied by his son Sebastian, he sailed from Bristol in 1497, and discovered the mainland of the continent, probably at Labrador. Sebastian Cabot commanded a second expedition which sailed in 1498, still in search of the short route to the East; and after exploring the coast from the far north to the shores of the Carolinas, he returned without having accomplished anything of note. However, these voyages are remarkable for two things: John Cabot was the first to discover the continent, being one year before Columbus and two before Vespucci; and they gave England a claim to the greater portion of North America.

Sebastian Cabot.

The Portuguese were envious of the riches acquired by Spain, owing to the discoveries of Columbus, and vexed that they had rejected his proposals. Like Henry VII., they were determined to obtain a share of the riches of Cathay. Accordingly, Gaspar Cortereal was sent out, in 1500, in search of a passage to India by a northern route. He explored the coast for several hundred miles, following the same course as Sebastian Cabot. He made no settlement, nor did he find any gold; but he stole fifty-seven natives, whom he meant to sell into slavery. He made a second voyage, from which he never returned. Whether he was lost at sea, or killed by the Indians for the kidnapping of their brethren, is not known. Cortereal.

Many of the adventurers who succeeded the great Columbus were bold, bad men, greedy for gold, and exceedingly cruel. They treated the helpless natives with the greatest barbarity. Clad in armor, furnished with firearms and steel weapons, sometimes mounted on horseback, and making use of blood-hounds, they drove the defenseless Indians before them, maiming, torturing, and killing them in the very wantonness of cruelty. The bows and arrows and flint-pointed spears of the natives could make but little impression on the well-armed Spaniards.

Vasco Nuñez de Balboa, on the contrary, treated the Indians with justice and humanity, and endeavored to win their confidence and affection. In 1510 he joined an expedition under the command of Enciso, who had previously served as lieutenant under Ojeda. They founded on the Isthmus of Panama the town of Santa Maria de la Antigua; but dissensions having broken out among their followers, Enciso was deposed, and Balboa was elected leader. Reënforcements having arrived from Hispaniola, Balboa proceeded to explore the Isthmus of Darien. He learned from a friendly Indian that a six days' journey would bring him to another great sea, and to a land abounding in gold. He thereupon started out from Darien, and, after overcoming many difficulties, discovered, in 1513, the Pacific Ocean.

Balboa discovers the Pacific.

Juan Ponce de Leon had accompanied Columbus on his second voyage, and served in Hispaniola under Ovando. He had acquired great wealth by his conquest of Puerto Rico; but he had been deprived of his governorship of the island, and had become an old man. Hearing from an Indian a tradition concerning a fountain, somewhere toward the north, which possessed the wonderful power of restoring youth, he resolved to go forth and find it.

Ponce de Leon.

Accordingly he set sail from Puerto Rico, in 1512, with three ships, on this remarkable voyage of discovery. After

sailing for some time among the Bahama Islands, he reached the mainland on Easter Sunday, called by the Spaniards Pascua de Flores. In honor of the day, and because of the rich and beautiful flowers which everywhere abounded, he named the newly discovered country Florida. He and his followers searched in all directions for the fountain of perpetual youth. They drank at every spring; they bathed in every stream; and it is needless to say that they were sadly disappointed. However, the aged Ponce de Leon was made governor on condition that he would establish a colony. Some time after this, in a fight with the Florida Indians, he was wounded with a poisoned arrow, and died in 1521.

Discovery of Florida.

Under a commission from the emperor, Charles V., Pánphilo de Narvaez sailed from Spain, in 1527, with five ships and five hundred men, determined to rival in Florida the exploits of Pizarro in Peru and Cortes in Mexico. He spent the winter in the West Indies, and started out in the spring of 1528. He landed at Tampa Bay. Almost immediately he left the coast, against the advice of his most sagacious officer, Cabeza de Vaca, and plunged recklessly into a country densely wooded, and covered, here and there, with impassable swamps.

De Narvaez.

The Spaniards, as usual, foolishly antagonized the natives in the first Indian village they came to by an act of desecration. Learning from one of their prisoners that there was gold farther inland, they continued their march, encountering difficulties of all kinds — hunger, disease, and the hostility of the Indians whom they had wantonly provoked. Not finding that of which they were in search, they tried to return to the coast. But now the horrors of their situation were increased twofold. The attacks of the natives were renewed with extraordinary vigor. The moment the Spaniards removed their armor to seek the rest they sorely needed, the arrows of the Indians whizzed about their ears. If they tried to secure game or maize, they were certain to be shot at from behind some bush or tree.

Finally, after desperate fighting and terrible suffering, they reached the sea, where they managed to build frail boats, in which they set sail for one of the Spanish colonies. But these boats were either lost at sea or dashed ashore; so that of the five hundred men who started out on this fatal expedition, but four — among whom was Cabeza de Vaca — ever lived to return to Spain. It is only just to say that if the Indians proved themselves vindictive and cruel, it was the Spaniards who set them the example, and were in every instance the aggressors.

Notwithstanding the failure of Ponce de Leon and Narvaez to discover gold and silver in Florida, or the land north of the Gulf of Mexico, such as had been found farther south, the Spanish adventurers were far from discouraged. Magellan having circumnavigated the globe — or at least one of his ships having done so — it began to dawn slowly on the minds of the Spaniards and the Portuguese, that instead of America being a part of the East Indies or Cathay, it was in reality a vast continent.

The sole purpose of the adventurers was the acquisition of enormous wealth — to rival the exploits and plunderings of Cortes in Mexico and Pizarro in Peru. Among those who accompanied the latter in his merciless conquest was Hernando de Soto. He had returned to Spain with the large fortune he had secured as part of the Peruvian spoil. Ambitious to achieve glory and greatness equal to that of his former commander, he requested the emperor, Charles V., to grant him a commission to explore and form settlements in Florida. His request was granted, and he started out with an expedition consisting of nearly a thousand men, a few women, and some priests. He took with him also a large number of hogs and horses. In order that he should have little difficulty in obtaining supplies, the Emperor made him governor of Cuba.

De Soto.

The expedition sailed from Havana, in the spring of 1539, and landed at Tampa Bay. De Soto boldly plunged into the

interior, as Narvaez had done eleven years before, and spent the summer in a vain search for gold and silver. He wintered near Appalachee Bay. Obtaining fresh supplies from Cuba, he started forward again in the spring of 1540. Everywhere in his wanderings he treated the natives with extreme cruelty, oftentimes chaining the captives, two by two, by their necks, and compelling them to perform the services of beasts of burden. Sometimes his soldiers amused themselves by tying prisoners to trees, and shooting at them as targets. An Indian queen had treated them with kindness, furnished them with food, and bestowed quantities of pearls on their leader; and as a reward they made her a captive, and her people slaves. But she managed to elude their vigilance and escape to the woods, taking with her a box of pearls.

Expedition to Florida.

It would be futile to follow De Soto in his various wanderings through Florida, Alabama, Mississippi, and Arkansas; suffice it to say that the great event of the expedition was the discovery of the Mississippi River in 1541. Worn out with anxiety, fatigue, and disappointment, De Soto died, and was buried in the waters of the great river he had discovered. Shortly afterwards what remained of his force constructed rude boats, and floated down the Mississippi, and finally, after much toil and many privations, reached a Spanish settlement.

Discovery of the Mississippi.

CHAPTER IV.

FRENCH EXPLORATIONS AND DISCOVERIES.

"Merrily, merrily, goes the bark
On a breeze from the northward free;
So shoots through the morning sky the lark,
Or the swan through the summer sea."

WHILE Spain and Portugal were planting colonies in the New World, France and England seemed indifferent to what was then termed the right of Christian discovery. But Francis I. of France was resolved to obtain a share of the wealth and glory already secured by his southern neighbors. Accordingly, an expedition consisting of four vessels was fitted out, and set sail from some port of Brittany, under the command of Verrazano, a native of Florence.

Verrazano.

Verrazano.

And here it may be said, in passing, that the three navigators who gave the greater part of the New World to Spain, France, and England, were Italians; and yet Italy reaped no advantage from the ability of her great men.

Verrazano, in 1523, sailed almost due west from the Madeiras, and struck the continent at the coast of North Carolina. Then sailing toward the south for some time, he changed his course toward the north, and explored the country for a distance of six hundred miles, probably entering New York Bay, and stopping for several days in the harbor of Newport. He virtually sailed over the same waters that the Cabots had sailed a quarter of a century before. He called the country

New France.

New France. Verrazano deserves credit as being the first of the navigators to arrive at a tolerably correct notion of the size of the earth, thus dispelling the delusion which had filled the mind of the great Columbus and of his immediate successors, that the New World was only a part of the East Indies.

Ten years had passed away since the voyages and explorations of Verrazano, and yet nothing had been done toward the establishment of a colony to aid the fishermen of Brittany. Chabot, the admiral, represented to the King of France the advantages of a plantation on the island of Newfoundland, and prevailed upon him to issue a commission to Jacques Cartier of St. Malo to explore the northern part of the American continent for the purpose of finding a place suitable for a colony.

Cartier.

In pursuance of this object, Cartier sailed out of his native town in the spring of 1534, with two small ships, each of sixty tons, and one hundred and twenty-two men. Arriving at Newfoundland, he explored its bays and harbors; and then sailing along the coast of Labrador, and finding the country barren and inhospitable to such an extent that he called it the "Land of Cain," he changed his course toward the south, and entered a pleasant bay, which, on account of its heat, he named the Bay of Chaleur. Unable to find a passage out of it, he sailed eastward along the coast until he reached the Bay of Gaspé, where he landed, and took formal possession of the country for the King of France. He established such friendly relations with the Indians, that he induced an old chief to permit two of his sons to accompany him on his homeward voyage.

Cartier.

The most important result of this expedition was the discovery of the Gulf of St. Lawrence and the great river of the

same name. In 1535 Cartier commanded a second expedition to explore the lands already discovered. Arriving at Newfoundland, and satisfying himself that it was not suitable for a colony, he entered the river St. Lawrence, in which he discovered several islands thickly inhabited with Indians, whom he found very friendly.

Discovery of the St. Lawrence.

The old chief's two sons whom he brought back with him from France gave the natives glowing accounts of the greatness and wealth of that country; and acting as interpreters, they assisted Cartier in establishing a trade by which the French obtained food and furs in exchange for beads, looking-glasses, knives, axes, and other things of little value. He anchored his two ships at the mouth of the St. Croix, and then started to explore the St. Lawrence in his small boats. He reached the Indian village of Hochelaga, consisting of fifty huts surrounded by a triple row of palisades, where he was received by the King and a thousand of his subjects with every manifestation of welcome. This village was the site of the present city of Montreal. It received its name from a high hill which Cartier named Mont Royal, which commanded a magnificent view of the surrounding country. It was on this voyage that the French found the natives smoking the tobacco leaf. Its odor at first was very disagreeable to the Europeans.

Founding of Montreal.

In midwinter Cartier's ships were frost-bound, and buried in four feet of snow. The weather was much colder than his men had ever before encountered; and to add to their miseries, the scurvy broke out among them. Cartier, who had escaped the malady, learned from a friendly Indian that a decoction of the leaves of a certain tree was a sovereign remedy for the disease. This he applied with such excellent results that in six days the sick were restored to health. At the last, when about to return to St. Malo, notwithstanding all the friendship shown by the Indians, Cartier was guilty of an act of the basest treachery. He invited the old chief and ten other Indians on board his vessel, and repaid their kindness

by seizing and confining them, and carrying them off to France, where he arrived in the summer of 1536.

The exaggerated accounts brought to France by Cartier made so little impression on the court that it was not until four years after his return from his second voyage that the King granted a commission to Jean François de la Roque, Lord of Roberval, creating him lieutenant governor of Canada and Hochelaga. Cartier was made commander of the ships, with the rank of chief pilot. Under positive orders from the King, Cartier sailed from the port of St. Malo in May, 1540, leaving Roberval to complete his preparations for the colony.

Roberval and Cartier.

After a tedious and stormy passage he reached the harbor of St. Croix; and the first thing the natives asked was, "What has become of our countrymen whom you kidnapped on your previous voyage?" Cartier replied with a falsehood, for they were all dead. He said that the chief had died, but that the others had become great lords, had married, and refused to return. Although the Indians seemed satisfied, it was not long before mutual distrust arose between them and the French. Cartier anchored three of his vessels within four miles of the St. Croix, and sent two others home to inform the King of what he had accomplished.

There is no exact information as to how he spent the winter. In the spring, not having heard from Roberval, and thinking that he was left there to perish, he made up his mind to return to France. Accordingly, he weighed anchor and sailed to Newfoundland, where he met Roberval with three ships and two hundred immigrants, with whom he intended to found a colony. Roberval ordered Cartier to return; but the latter quietly disobeyed, and privately slipped away at night, and returned to France. Roberval passed the winter in Canada, and suffered greatly from scurvy and want of provisions. The colony was a complete failure, and of Roberval himself little is known. The last account is that, in 1549, he sailed with his brother on a voyage of discovery, and never returned.

These expeditions ended all attempts on the part of France for half a century to establish a colony in North America. However, they were productive of one substantial benefit: they gave that country a claim to all the lands bordering the river St. Lawrence.

Ribault.

In 1562 Coligny, the lord admiral of France, sent out from Havre two ships, under the command of Jean Ribault, to explore the American coast, with the view of planting a colony of Huguenots somewhere in the New World. He reached the coast of Florida in April, at the mouth of the river St. Johns, and, changing his course towards the north, he entered the beautiful harbor of Port Royal, where he determined to plant the colony. Notwithstanding the brutal treatment that the natives received at the hands of the Spaniards, they hailed the arrival of the French with every manifestation of pleasure. And it may be stated, as worthy of note, that in general the French treated the Indians with a humanity strongly in contrast with the cruelty of the Spaniards. Leaving thirty men behind him, Ribault returned to France to give an account of his expedition, and to seek additional supplies for the colony. But owing to civil war in the mother country no aid could be obtained; and therefore the little band at Port Royal were left to their own resources.

Although the country abounded in game, and the waters in fish, they were too careless or indolent to secure and preserve a supply. They became demoralized by the mania for sudden wealth. Instead of planting corn, they searched for gold; and therefore, when the winter set in they found themselves in a starving condition, entirely dependent on the friendly natives, who had scarcely enough food for their own use. Day after day they scanned the horizon in search of the ships that never gladdened their sight. Despondent and insubordinate, they murdered their captain, and elected another in his stead, and then commenced to construct a vessel out of such wretched materials as were at hand, to carry them back to their native land.

When all was ready they started on the most foolish voyage, perhaps, ever undertaken by man. The sails were made of their shirts and sheets, and the ropes were the handiwork of the Indians. They were ill supplied with food; and when their sufferings on the broad ocean became intolerable, they preserved their lives in a manner too horrible to relate. At the point of death they were picked up by an English vessel. The weakest of their number were sent to France; the remainder were detained as prisoners.

In 1564 Coligny fitted out a second expedition, which sailed to Florida under the command of Captain Laudonnière, who had accompanied Ribault in his first voyage. When his three ships entered the river St. Johns, the natives, as on the former occasion, hailed the arrival of the French with delight. After an examination of the coast, Laudonnière resolved to abandon Port Royal as a place of settlement, and to select a site on the St. Johns as more suitable in every way to supply the wants of his people. Here he built a fort, which he named Fort Caroline, in honor of the King, Charles IX. But he could not prevail on his men to till the soil. They came in search of gold, and gold they must have. They were constantly deceived and disappointed by crafty Indians, who told them that gold and silver and precious stones were to be found farther inland among the mountains.

Laudonnière.

Laudonnière experienced great difficulty in controlling his men; and in his attempts to maintain discipline he incurred their animosity to such an extent that they formed conspiracies to assassinate him. At length they stole four of his vessels, made him a prisoner, and, while at their mercy, compelled him to sign them a roving commission as pirates. They met, however, the fate they deserved. Three of their vessels fell into the hands of the Spaniards, who of course showed them little mercy; the fourth returned to Fort Caroline with some of the ringleaders, whom Laudonnière instantly put to death. The usual consequence of indolence and improvidence overtook them. They suffered for want of food. The Indians began

to despise them for their laziness. Driven almost to despair, the mutinous colonists forced their commander, against his better judgment, to seize a native chief and hold him as a hostage, to compel his people to provide them with corn.

This inexcusable act of treachery converted the friendly Indians into implacable enemies, and naturally failed to accomplish the purpose intended. Again, as in the previous expedition, all eyes were turned on the sea in the hope of perceiving ships carrying provisions from France. Finally a fleet hove in sight; but it was an English fleet, under the command of the celebrated Sir John Hawkins, who generously supplied their wants, and then sailed away to England.

Ribault's second voyage.

In 1565 Laudonnière was superseded in the command by Ribault. This change of officers was caused by false or distorted reports carried to Coligny. The second expedition consisted of seven ships; and when it reached the mouth of the St. Johns, and when Ribault had ascertained the true condition of affairs, he generously offered to retain Laudonnière in command of Fort Caroline; but the latter declined the offer, preferring to obey orders, return to France, and meet his accusers face to face. But the appearance of a Spanish fleet under Menendez compelled the deposed captain to remain at his post at least for the time being. The Spaniard claimed Florida as the rightful property of his king. He considered the French as invaders; he sought revenge for the piracies of Laudonnière's mutineers, and he desired to drive the Lutherans out of the country. By the exercise of cunning and military skill, Menendez captured Fort Caroline, and all who failed to escape to the woods he put to the sword.

Founding of St. Augustine.

Among those who escaped was Laudonnière, who finally reached his native land. Ribault was less fortunate; for he and most of his followers were entrapped and cruelly murdered. This was the disastrous termination of French attempts to colonize the southern portion of the North American continent.

Menendez took formal possession of Florida in the name of the King of Spain, and afterwards established the first permanent colony within the present limits of the United States, which he named St. Augustine.

Not long, however, did the cruelty of Menendez remain unpunished. De Gourgues, a trained French soldier of fortune, had been, some time previously, captured by the Spaniards and sent to the galleys. Burning with a desire to avenge his own wrongs, as well as the murder of his countrymen, he sold his estates, and borrowed money to fit out an expedition bound for the coast of Africa. Reaching the coast of Guinea, he secured a cargo of negroes, which he disposed of in the West Indies. Having carefully kept his real purpose a secret until all his preparations had been thoroughly made, he assembled his men, repeated the story of the cruel murder of their countrymen, and asked them if they were willing to take vengeance on the Spaniards.

De Gourgues.

Of course there was but one answer to this appeal. They desired to be led instantly to the Spanish settlement, and De Gourgues had great difficulty in restraining their impatience. In the spring of 1568, he sailed, first, to the mouth of the St. John, and then, in order to deceive the enemy, he changed his course and stood out to sea. Once more he altered his course, and returned to the coast some miles farther north. Here he landed, and formed an alliance with the Indians, who detested the Spaniards. With his allies, he surprised the fort, routed its defenders, and put them to the sword. With a cunning and military skill quite equal to that of Menendez, he captured another fort named St. Matthew, and hanged its garrison on the same trees on which the Spaniards had hanged the Frenchmen a short time before. De Gourgues managed to escape the vengeance of the King of Spain, but was obliged to remain in concealment for fear Charles IX. might hand him over to his implacable enemies.

Menendez's cruelty avenged.

CHAPTER V.

ENGLISH NAVIGATORS AND EXPLORERS.

"Ye mariners of England!
That guard our native seas,
Whose flag has braved a thousand years
The battle and the breeze."

With the voyages and explorations of the Cabots the efforts of Henry VII. of England to discover a short route to the East Indies terminated; not for lack of interest, it may be assumed, but because he had been kept very busy maintaining his questionable right to the English throne. Besides, gold had not been discovered, as in Peru and Mexico, in the two voyages fitted out under his patronage; and the King was not the man to expend his money without a quick and profitable return. It is difficult otherwise to account for the apathy of a hardy and adventurous people noted for their skill and courage on the sea.

The nation destined to subdue and colonize the greater part of the North American continent was slow, feeble, and uncertain in its early expeditions. In 1527 — thirty years after the voyages of the Cabots — Henry VIII. had been convinced that a short route to China and Japan could be discovered by way of the northwest. Accordingly, two vessels were fitted out, and sailed as far as Newfoundland. One of them foundered, and the other accomplished nothing.

Revival of English explorations.

Nine years after this fruitless expedition, two ships, the *Trinity* and *Minion*, containing one hundred and ten men, arrived at Newfoundland, where their crew spent the summer. But no effort was made to explore the coast; and, provisions falling short, they had recourse to cannibalism in order to preserve their lives. At this critical moment a well-stored French ship approached the island, which the English seized

by fraud or force, and then they sailed away to England, leaving the Frenchmen to starve on a barren coast. In some way, however, the latter managed to survive, and on their return, were recompensed by the King for their losses and sufferings; but the heartless robbers were never punished for their crime.

These two feeble expeditions dampened the ardor of the English for a period of seventeen years; and not until Sebastian Cabot, now an old man past seventy, revived their hopes of a northern passage to the East, was any attempt made to rival the enterprise of their European neighbors. In 1553, in the reign of Edward VI., an expedition was sent out under the command of Sir Hugh Willoughby, from which great things were anticipated; but it came to an unfortunate end. Sir Hugh and his men were ice-bound and frozen to death. Two years afterwards they were found in this condition by some Russian fishermen. One of the vessels parted company from the others, and reached Archangel. Chancellor, the captain, traveled to Moscow, and opened commercial relations with the Russians, which was the only benefit obtained from this costly expedition.

Sir Hugh Willoughby.

Twenty-three years had passed away before another attempt was made to discover that short route to Cathay which had baffled every navigator from Columbus to Willoughby. At this period, 1576, the throne of England was occupied by Elizabeth, one of the most able and enlightened sovereigns that ever ruled a brave people. Whatever may have been her defects of character as a woman, her capacity and energy as a monarch have never been disputed. Her reign was the golden age of literature — the age of Shakespeare, Spenser, Bacon, and Raleigh; the age of courageous soldiers and daring navigators.

Sir Martin Frobisher.

Among the host of poets, dramatists, scholars, statesmen, who adorned her reign, the half-brothers Raleigh and Gilbert may be mentioned as not the least distinguished. Their writings and speeches revived the ardor of the nation for maritime

adventure. In 1576 Martin Frobisher, a celebrated navigator, made a voyage, it is supposed to Greenland, but it was totally barren of results. He subsequently made two other voyages, still in search of the short route to the East Indies. He passed through the straits which bear his name, and fancied that Cumberland Island was a part of the mainland of Asia. He brought back with him a stone which some of the ignorant chemists of the time said contained gold. This aroused the cupidity of some merchants, who fitted out a fleet of fifteen ships, and sent it out under Frobisher's command to carry cargoes of the precious metal to England. It is needless to say that no gold was found, and that the expedition was a failure.

In the years 1585, 1586, and 1587, Sir John Davis made three voyages to the frozen regions of North America. In the last of these voyages he reached to 73° of latitude, entered the straits still known by his name, and satisfied himself that if he could cut his way through the ice the problem of the northwest passage would be solved. Sir John was correct in his conclusion, for the passage by that route to Asia was actually accomplished by a British navigator in the middle of the nineteenth century.

Sir John Davis.

Hitherto every voyage made and every expedition fitted out by the English, with the exception of that of Cabot, had been for the sole purpose of discovering a shorter route to the East Indies. The Spaniards, starting out with the same object in view, had prosecuted it for years, until they found in Mexico and Peru riches rivaling, if not surpassing, those of the far-famed Cathay. If settlements were made by the Spaniards, they were not made with the honest intention of colonization, but for the fell purpose of spoliation and robbery.

Sir Humphrey Gilbert.

It was reserved, however, for an enlightened Englishman, Sir Humphrey Gilbert, to undertake the establishment of a permanent colony on the shores of the New World; and although he failed in the attempt, and lost his

life in the cause, he deserves credit for preparing the way for those settlements which gave the best part of the North American continent to the English-speaking people. With the quick and keen understanding of a statesman, he perceived that the "fertile soil and teeming woods" of America, with its semi-tropical and temperate climate, would enrich the mother country, and extend the power of the English monarchy.

Gilbert.

In 1578 Gilbert received from Elizabeth the usual charter, which recognized the "right of Christian discovery" to seize and possess all lands inhabited by pagans and barbarians, provided some other Christian nation was not already in possession. The French had taken all the country watered by the river St. Lawrence; the Spaniards, then a powerful nation, claimed Florida and the lands bordering the Gulf of Mexico; and England, by right of Cabot's explorations and discoveries, was entitled to the fairest part of North America — that now occupied by the great republic of the United States.

Claims of the Europeans.

The greedy Spaniard in search of gold obtained possession of the tropic regions; the French, beguiled by a great river, secured the frozen region of the north; but it was reserved for the English, the greatest of all colonizers, to plant themselves firmly on the vast territory lying between both extremes — a territory unsurpassed in natural resources.

It was not without great difficulty that Sir Humphrey Gilbert started on his first voyage. Owing to various causes this expedition proved a failure. In June, 1583, he again set sail for the American continent with an expedition consisting of five ships and a hundred and sixty men, many of whom were mechanics, well adapted for colonists. He had hardly started

when the largest of his vessels, the *Raleigh*, deserted, because, it is said, pestilence had broken out among the crew.

Arriving at St. Johns, Newfoundland, he read to the men his commission from the Queen. His intention was not to remain here longer than necessary to obtain supplies and make repairs. The delay, however, was fatal to the expedition. Many of his crew had been criminals and pirates, and desertions were almost of daily occurrence. He made a brave effort to reach the land north of Florida, where he intended to plant his colony; but the season being far advanced, storms and headwinds baffled all his endeavors, and compelled him, after the loss of one of his vessels, to return to Newfoundland. As winter approached, provisions became scarce; so he was obliged to return to England without having accomplished anything of real value.

He caused reports to be circulated about the discovery of a great silver mine, probably with the view of inducing credulous people to join, or subscribe money for, another expedition. Perhaps he believed in the mine himself. Be that as it may, in 1583 Sir Humphrey started out on another voyage, choosing to sail in the smallest of his vessels — a boat of ten tons! The weather was unusually stormy; and when expostulated with on account of the great danger he ran, he replied that he would ask no man to encounter risks that he was unwilling to encounter himself, and that "he was as near to heaven by sea as by land." One dark, tempestuous night the little vessel foundered, and all on board perished. This was a sad termination of Sir Humphrey Gilbert's career.

Heroic death of Gilbert.

Raleigh, Amidas, and Barlow.

In 1584 Sir Walter Raleigh, a great favorite of Queen Elizabeth, obtained a new charter, conferring greater powers than had been granted to his half-brother. He sent out two ships, under the command of two experienced navigators, Amidas and Barlow, for the purpose of selecting a suitable place for the establishment of a colony. After a long and tedious voyage the two vessels reached the

American coast in the latitude of North Carolina; and, the commanders being pleased with the climate and the appearance of the country, entered Pamlico Sound, in which they cast anchor. Here they were visited by the natives, who treated the English with great kindness and hospitality. Soon afterwards, having accomplished the object of their voyage, they returned to England, and gave such glowing accounts of the country they had visited, that Raleigh obtained permission to name it Virginia, in honor of the virgin queen.

Raleigh.

In the spring of 1585 Sir Walter Raleigh fitted out a second expedition, consisting of seven ships and about one hundred men, under the command of Sir Richard Grenville. Ralph Lane was appointed governor of the proposed colony. On the passage to America, which lasted nearly three months, the English attacked and despoiled several of the Spanish galleons carrying rich treasures from Mexico and Peru to their enemy, Philip II. Finally Grenville reached the coast near Cape Fear, and soon afterwards landed with a chosen band, and penetrated the country for a considerable distance. A dispute having arisen with the friendly Indians about an act of theft, he burnt one of their villages, and destroyed their corn. Having first started the natives on the warpath by this act of wanton cruelty, Grenville returned to England with a portion of the fleet.

Sir Richard Grenville.

Lane was Grenville's worthy successor; for he, too, commenced despoiling and murdering the Indians. It is needless

to narrate the cruelties perpetrated by the English in their efforts to compel the natives to supply them with food. Grenville did not return with supplies, and what was left of the expedition was thoroughly discouraged, and returned to England. It failed, as it deserved; for the crews were little better than pirates. The inhuman treatment of the Indians was without excuse, and has left an indelible stain on the leaders of the expedition. Perhaps the most remarkable event of Grenville's expedition was the introduction of tobacco into England.

Raleigh's third expedition.

Again, in 1587, Raleigh fitted out a third expedition, consisting of a hundred and fifty men and some women. John White was appointed governor, and Simon Ferdinando admiral. From the very beginning of the voyage the two leaders quarreled; and this lack of harmony caused the expedition to prove a failure. Raleigh's orders to White were first to seek the fifteen men whom Grenville had left behind when he returned to England, and then to enter Chesapeake Bay, and select a site suitable for a colony. The fifteen men were not found for the simple reason that they had been murdered by the Indians in retaliation for the crimes of Grenville and Lane.

Captain John White.

On the arrival of White the feud between the natives and the English was renewed with redoubled fury; and this fact, combined with the enmity that existed between the governor and the admiral, compelled the former to return to England to seek assistance. But White was unable to procure succor, owing to the attempted invasion of England by the celebrated Spanish Armada, which caused Elizabeth to impress every ship, large and small, into the service of the government. It was three years before White was able to reach the coast of Virginia; and when he sought his colonists, they could not be found. Doubtless they had been destroyed by the vindictive Indians whom they had wantonly provoked. It was, however, subsequently rumored that some of them had escaped, and established themselves in the mountains; but the fact was never proved. Raleigh made

several attempts to discover these lost colonists, but without success. Elizabeth died in 1603, and her successor, deficient in the courage which had distinguished the Queen, feared the Spaniard and hated Raleigh; and hence he ceased all further attempts at colonizing Virginia.

It will be borne in mind that Virginia included all the territory between Florida and Maine, and that some of the most enlightened statesmen of England were determined to plant a permanent colony on the American coast. Accordingly, Bartholomew Gosnold was sent out in 1602 at the head of a feeble band of colonists.

He sailed along the sandy shore of Cape Cod, named a small island Marthas Vineyard (the name was subsequently transferred to the larger island, which it now bears), entered Buzzards Bay, and selected a site for his colony. Here, too, he found the natives friendly, as they had been everywhere to the first European visitors. They came to Gosnold in their canoes, bringing furs, wampum, tobacco, and provisions. As usual, the colonists refused to plant crops for their support, and as their stores were running short, and as they could not rely on the supplies furnished by the Indians, they resolved to return to England. The next year some merchants of Bristol sent out a trading expedition consisting of two small vessels under the command of Martin Pring. But there was no attempt at colonization. Pring sailed along the coast of Maine, followed in the track of Gosnold, traded with the Indians, returned in six months, and gave a good account of the new country.

Gosnold and Pring.

CHAPTER VI.

THE NORTH AMERICAN INDIANS.

"Lo, the poor Indian! whose untutored mind
Sees God in clouds, or hears him in the wind."

HAVING narrated the discoveries, explorations, and attempts at colonization in North America by the Spaniards, French, and English, it may be well to take a brief glance at the inhabitants whom the Europeans were trying to supplant.

American Indian.

When first seen by the white man, the North American Indian was a low-grade savage whose weapons and domestic utensils were rudely constructed of stone. He had no knowledge of the use of iron. His canoe was the hollowed-out trunk of a tree. He was almost ignorant of agriculture, and lived chiefly by hunting and fishing. A small amount of maize was raised, mainly by the labor of his wife. His dwelling was constructed of the flimsiest material, and in the rudest manner. He was governed by a chief chosen for his cunning in council or his bravery in war. His want of foresight was such that although the waters abounded with fish, and the forests with game, and although the soil and climate were capable of producing the richest crops of corn, he was often reduced during the winter months to the verge of starvation.

Under such conditions of living his family was small, rarely consisting of more than a wife and a couple of children. He

had a vague notion of a Supreme Being, whom he called the Great Spirit, and of a future state. He was kind and hospitable to his friends, fierce and vindictive to his foes.

On every occasion, from Columbus to the English attempt at colonization, he hailed the first appearance of the European with delight, and treated him with kindness. He supplied the wants of the white man with alacrity, and not infrequently shared with him his scanty supply of maize; and not until the European in every instance betrayed his confidence, stole his property, enslaved his person, and in some cases chased him with bloodhounds, did he take up arms against his oppressor, and avenge the wrongs inflicted on his race.

His complexion and features indicate that he is sprung from a people that formerly inhabited the east of Asia; but when or how he reached the American continent will never be known, for even tradition fails to furnish any account of his origin.

The Mound Builders.

It is certain that the Indians were preceded on this continent by a superior and peculiar people named Mound Builders, because of a great number of curious mounds which they built in several of the Western States, particularly in Ohio, Wisconsin, Missouri, and in the valley of the Mississippi.

The construction of these mounds proved that they understood the science of geometry and civil engineering, and were familiar with the use of mathematical instruments. Their pottery, their domestic utensils, and their weapons of war, while manifesting great skill, show that they had not yet learned the use of iron. However, they had advanced beyond the stone age, for they manufactured many articles out of copper. They worked the copper mines of Lake Superior, and transported great quantities of the ore hundreds of miles overland, and down the Mississippi. To accomplish this they must have employed a great number of workmen and constructed vessels of considerable size. All these things prove that the Mound Builders had reached a high degree of civilization. What became of them is a mere matter of conjecture.

CHAPTER VII.

THE SETTLEMENT OF VIRGINIA.

"The lust of gold succeeds the lust of conquests,
The lust of gold, unfeeling and remorseless,
The last corruption of degenerate man."

JAMES I., the successor of Elizabeth, was said to be "the wisest fool in Christendom." He was scholarly, pedantic, timid, and jealous of his "divine right" to misgovern the people. With the view of civilizing his Highland countrymen in Scotland, he had established among them respectable traders, who, it is needless to say, failed in their attempt.

With a similar object in view as regards the Indians, and also for the purpose of extending the commerce and power of England, he granted letters patent, in 1606, to Sir Thomas Gates, Sir George Somers, Richard Hakluyt, and their associates, granting them the territory lying on the seacoast between the thirty-fourth and forty-fifth degrees of north latitude. Two distinct companies were formed, one in London, the other in Plymouth.

The London and the Plymouth Company.

To the London Company was granted the land extending from the thirty-fourth degree to the forty-first; and the Plymouth Company received the land from the thirty-eighth degree to the forty-fifth. So that the territories of the two companies overlapped. The main purposes of the patentees were to form settlements and to convert the Indians to Christianity. The charter guaranteed to the settlers and their children all the rights of Englishmen, gave them power to carry on trade with other nations, and to open and work mines for their own profit.

The supreme power was vested in a board resident in England, and the subordinate jurisdiction devolved on a colonial

council, both nominated by, and subject to, the instructions of the King. The council consisted of thirteen members, who had the right to choose their own president, and to fill vacancies caused by death or resignation. The religion of the colonists was to be that of the Established Church of England. Trial by jury was to be allowed only for capital crimes; minor offenses were to be tried by the president and council.

In December, 1607, a fleet of three ships, under the command of Captain Christopher Newport, started for the coast of Virginia. The expedition consisted of a hundred and five men, among whom were Bartholomew Gosnold, Edward Wingfield, Ratcliffe, and Captain John Smith, an adventurous soldier who had distinguished himself fighting against the Turks. The majority of the colonists were poor gentlemen, anxious to retrieve their broken fortunes.

Sir Christopher Newport.

Unfortunately they consumed a great deal of their provisions by trading in the West Indies. It was four months before they reached the coast of Virginia. But, worse still, they sailed under sealed orders, which were not to be opened until they had reached their destination. Quarrels broke out among the principal men for want of a chief to whose authority all must submit; and Captain John Smith was put under restraint because he clamored against the delay. The fleet finally reached Chesapeake Bay; and having carefully explored the coast, the council selected the present site of Jamestown for their settlement, and chose Edward Wingfield as their president. Here they built a fort, and fortified themselves against the Indians.

Colony at Jamestown, 1607.

At first the natives treated the colonists with great kindness, giving them maize and other provisions in exchange for colored beads and toys. But this friendly feeling did not continue very long. For some reason, not explained — but most probably for some unprovoked aggression — the Indians became hostile. They attacked the camp, wounded some of the men, and killed a boy.

The gentlemen refused to work, because it was beneath their dignity; the mechanics sought gold; Wingfield was weak and indolent; and altogether the colony was in a bad condition, and likely to die of starvation and pestilence. They had landed in May, and yet in September nearly half the colonists were dead, and among them the distinguished navigator, Gosnold. The want of food embittered the animosities of the leading men against Wingfield, who was deposed from the presidency, mainly by the efforts of Smith, and Ratcliffe was chosen to succeed him. The new president was no improvement on his predecessor; and the management of affairs naturally fell into the hands of the able and energetic Smith, who established order and discipline among the men. He made several expeditions along the coast and up the rivers, chiefly for the purpose of trading with the Indians and securing provisions to save his people from starvation.

Deposition of Wingfield.

Captain John Smith.

John Smith.

In exploring the Chickahominy, he was captured and brought before the Indian King Powhatan, who ordered him to be put to death. It is said that, at the moment of execution, he was saved by the intervention of Pocahontas, who threw herself on Smith's body, and begged her father, Powhatan, to spare his life. Soon after his return to Jamestown, Smith was chosen president of the council; and though he was unable to make the colonists work, his administration was successful in supplying them with food obtained from the natives. He deserves credit for preserving the infant colony from utter destruction. But his services soon came to an end; he was injured by an explosion of gunpowder, and compelled to return to England to obtain surgical aid.

He was succeeded by George Percy, who proved himself as inefficient as Wingfield or Ratcliffe. The men suffered so terribly for want of provisions during the winter of 1610, that it was called "the starving time." During the three years that the colony was in existence, it had been reënforced to such an extent that it contained five hundred persons at the time of Smith's departure; and yet on the arrival of Sir Thomas Gates, the newly appointed captain-general, he found but sixty alive.

The starving time.

Gates found everything in ruins, and Jamestown a scene of desolation. The people were sick and emaciated from hunger, afraid to leave the blockhouse to find game in the woods, and in constant terror of the hostile Indians who lurked in the neighborhood, seeking an opportunity to murder them. After a careful inspection of the state of affairs, Gates concluded that the best thing to do was to abandon Jamestown, and sail to Newfoundland, where he could obtain provisions and assistance from English vessels.

Sir Thomas Gates.

But at this most critical moment Lord Delawarr arrived with three ships plentifully laden with stores. Gates surrendered his authority; and the new governor assembled the people, and warned them against that pernicious idleness which had almost caused their destruction. Although he brought food enough to last a year, he took measures to augment the supply by establishing peace with the Indians, and obtaining corn by trade, and not by plunder. The government of Lord Delawarr was good and wise. He restored order and discipline, and saved the colony from ruin. The state of his health, however, compelled him, after a service of one year, to return to England.

Lord Delawarr.

In 1611, the London Company sent out to Virginia two expeditions; one under the command of Sir Thomas Gates, and the other under Sir Thomas Dale. They brought to the colony supplies of all kinds, and domestic animals. Dale was a man of superior ability. He gave to each man three acres of land, which he had to till

Gates and Dale.

for his own food, so that he should no longer depend for subsistence on the public stores. This wise course had an excellent effect, and for the first time the colony began to prosper. Other towns were established, and industry and activity prevailed under the inspiring influence of individual gain caused by the profitable cultivation of tobacco.

A system of very severe laws was enacted for the government of the settlers. Its pains and penalties were cruel. The crime of theft was punished with death; the sin of blasphemy received a similar punishment; and for the most venial offenses men were whipped or sent to the galleys. When the character of the first settlers is considered, many of them having been pirates, robbers, and discharged prisoners — discharged not on account of their innocence, but to be shipped as temporary slaves — it will be understood that these penalties were perhaps necessary to save the infant colony from chaos and dissolution. The ownership of land, the establishment of the rights of property, the cultivation of tobacco, for which there was great demand in England, and the termination of the "communistic" system, soon caused the colony of Virginia to increase and prosper.

Severe laws.

The inability or unwillingness of the broken-down gentlemen to work led to the introduction, first of temporary white, and afterwards of permanent black, slavery. A Dutch ship in 1619 arrived at Jamestown with a cargo of negroes from the coast of Guinea, which the planters were only too glad to purchase at almost any price. The Indians resembled the white gentlemen in one respect — they despised farm labor; and the bondmen imported from the mother country were freed after a period of service, and hence the docile negroes became invaluable to their owners, and on the produce of their unrewarded toil the planters grew rich and powerful.

Introduction of slavery.

While the romantic story of the preservation of Captain John Smith by Pocahontas, the favorite daughter of Powhatan,

is very doubtful, it is certain that she was married to John Rolfe, was taken to England, introduced at court, and received with great favor by the nobility and gentry as the daughter of an "Indian emperor." She died in a year from the time of her arrival, just as she was making preparations for her return to her native country. She left a son whose blood, it is claimed, flows through the veins of some of the first families of Virginia.

Pocahontas.

Pocahontas.

Under the wise administration of Sir George Yeardley the colony prospered; and through the efforts of Sir Edwin Sandys, twelve hundred and sixty-one persons were sent over from England, many of whom were estimable young women, who had no difficulty in finding suitable husbands. Thus, after many trials and difficulties, and not infrequently in danger of total extinction, was the Virginia colony founded on a permanent basis.

CHAPTER VIII.

THE SETTLEMENT OF NEW YORK.

"What nature wants, commodious gold bestows;
Trade it may help, society extend,
But lures the pirate and corrupts the friend;
It raises armies in a nation's aid,
But bribes a senate, and the land's betrayed."

The vain pursuit of gold and the northwest passage had seriously retarded the settlement of North America for a period of more than a hundred years. But from the moment that statesmen became convinced that the precious metals could not be found in sufficient quantity to pay the cost of mining, and that a short route to the East Indies was impracticable, the settlements rapidly increased, chiefly owing to the emigration of a superior class of people.

Hudson.

The attempt, however, to reach China and Japan by the northwest was not easily abandoned. The Dutch, who had recently thrown off the yoke of Spain, had grown in a few years into a great maritime power, and established trading settlements in the east. Determined to obtain advantages, if possible, by discoveries in the west, they sent several expeditions to find a *northeast* passage; but owing to the vast quantities of ice, they were unable to penetrate beyond Nova Zembla and Spitzbergen. In 1607 the Dutch sent an expedition under the command of Henry Hudson, an Englishman, to find the short route to

Henry Hudson.

the East Indies; but he, too, was blocked by the ice, and forced to return without having accomplished anything. Again, in 1609, he was sent out in command of a vessel called the *Half Moon*, manned by sixteen or eighteen sailors, to explore the Arctic seas; but when he reached the frozen regions of the north, his crew, partly Dutch and partly English, suffering intensely from the extreme cold, threatened to mutiny, and forced him to change his course towards the southwest. He reached the coast of Maine, where his disorderly sailors attacked and destroyed an Indian village. Departing in haste for fear of the natives whom they had wantonly provoked, Hudson directed his course towards the south, and sighted land at the entrance of Chesapeake Bay, almost within view of his countrymen settled at Jamestown.

Once more changing his course, he sailed northward, following the line of the coast, and then made the great discovery with which his name will be forever connected. He discovered the Hudson, the beautiful queen of rivers. Still in search of the northwest passage, he explored the river as far as Albany. Here he sent out a boat's crew, who penetrated the river as far as the present site of the city of Troy.

Discovery of the Hudson River.

Soon afterwards Hudson sailed to England; but the English authorities would not permit him to proceed to Amsterdam. He then entered the service of the Muscovite Company. In 1610 he was sent on a voyage to the northwest, from which he never returned. His crew mutinied, and cast him adrift in an open boat, with a keg of water and a bag of biscuits, to perish amid the floating ice of Hudson Bay. Such was the sad fate of the discoverer of the Hudson River.

In 1614, five years after the discovery of the Hudson River, the Dutch established a trading post near the present site of Albany, and erected a fort on Manhattan Island. A charter was obtained from the States General, through the exertions of Adrian Block, by which the exclusive right to navigate the waters of the New World, and to carry on trade with the

Indians, was granted to certain merchants of Amsterdam. The Dutch did not seek for wealth in gold and silver mines, but in a profitable trade with the natives, by which they received valuable furs in exchange for mere trifles.

Under this charter, which was only to continue for three years, no attempt was made at colonization. Trading posts were established on the North and South Rivers (the Hudson and Delaware), and as far east as the Connecticut. The necessities of the fur trade naturally led to friendly relations with the Indians. On the whole, the Dutch treated the natives very kindly and justly.

Trading posts.

At the expiration of the three years, the States General refused to grant a new charter. Having ascertained the immense value of the territory for commercial purposes, and taking a more comprehensive grasp of the situation, they resolved to establish a company similar to the great East India Company, which had already done so much in adding to the wealth and power of Holland. In 1622 the West India Company was formed, and invested with almost unlimited powers over the territory lying between the fortieth and forty-fifth degrees of north latitude, to which they now gave the name of New Netherland. They sent out a considerable number of colonists to form permanent settlements, and a fleet of war vessels to protect them in case of necessity. Instead of isolated trading posts, settlements were established at Fort Orange (Albany), at Manhattan (New Amsterdam), on Long Island, and the banks of the Delaware. The first governors under the West India charter were Captain May (after whom Cape May received its name), William Verhult, and Peter Minuit. It was Minuit who united the different settlements, and made New Amsterdam the seat of government. A strong fort was constructed at the southern extremity of Manhattan Island, within which houses were subsequently erected, and from which rich cargoes of furs were sent to Holland. Such was the beginning of the great city of New York.

Fort Orange and Manhattan.

CHAPTER IX.

THE SETTLEMENT OF NEW ENGLAND.

"The love of liberty with life is given,
And life itself the inferior gift of heaven."

A RELIGIOUS sect known as the Puritans had sprung up in England during the reigns of Edward VI., Mary, and Elizabeth. They received this name because they desired a simpler and purer form of worship than that of the Established Church. When James VI. of Scotland mounted the English throne under the title of James I., the Puritans had grown into a numerous and zealous body, sternly opposed to the forms and ceremonies of the Anglican Church.

The Puritans.

The King, as already stated, was a scholarly pedant, cowardly and suspicious, a tenacious and ardent upholder of the so-called "divine right" of kings, and of the sanctity of the hierarchy, and, above all, weakly jealous of his own authority both as temporal and spiritual head of the nation. Hence he looked with disfavor on a sect which had separated itself from the church established by act of Parliament, and which was, in religion, at least, thoroughly democratic.

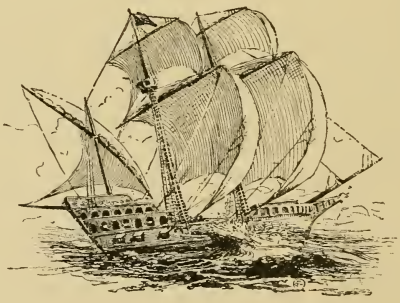
Fearless in the cause of religious liberty, the Puritans calmly suffered persecution and spoliation rather than renounce the system of worship which was dearer than their lives. "They feared God so much that they had little fear of man." Some of them had already taken refuge in Holland, and others, after much difficulty, followed them, in order to enjoy that freedom denied them in their own country. They established themselves in Leyden, under the care of their pastor, the Rev. John Robinson. Their leading men were Brewster, Carver, and Winslow, afterwards famous in the history of New England. But although they enjoyed

Refuge from persecution.

religious liberty, they found themselves strangers in a strange land, whose language, manners, and customs were very different from their own. Here they remained for several years, with little hope of future prosperity for themselves or their children.

Dissatisfied with their condition in Holland, and fired by the reports of the Dutch adventurers, who pictured America as a land overflowing with milk and honey, the majority of the Puritans resolved to emigrate to the New World, where they would not only find freedom to worship God, but ample opportunities for growth and expansion. Accordingly, in 1619, after much trouble, they obtained a charter from the Virginia Company, granting them permission, under certain conditions, to establish a settlement in any part of the King's American dominions. As the Dutch were in possession of New Netherland, they applied to the States for a similar charter; but after much discussion it was refused.

The Puritans' Charter.



The Mayflower.

At last two ships, the *Speedwell* and the *Mayflower*, were procured and fitted out in Southampton, from which port they set sail on the 5th of August, 1620. There were about a hundred and twenty persons called *Pilgrims* on board. When a few days at sea they were compelled to return, because

the *Speedwell* was found unseaworthy. Finally, on the 6th of September, the *Mayflower* started alone on one of the most memorable voyages ever recorded. The Pilgrims suffered terribly from the tempestuous weather and from the close quarters in which they were confined.

Emigration to America.

On the 9th of November they sighted land at Cape Cod; but as it was their intention to reach the coast somewhere near the Hudson River, they turned their course toward the south. However, the severity of the weather and the danger of the coast compelled them to return and anchor in the harbor of Provincetown.

It has been said that the Dutch captain was bribed to land the Pilgrims anywhere except on the territory claimed by Holland. But there is no truth in this story or tradition. It is more than probable that the immigrants were only too glad to establish their colony as remote as possible from the influence of either the Dutch or the English settlement. The Pilgrims made a temporary landing at Cape Cod, but, owing to lack of fresh water, found the place unfitted for their purpose. They sent out several parties, one under the leadership of the famous Miles Standish, to explore the coast and find a site suitable for a fort and a town. It was finally determined to select the height on which the present town of Plymouth now stands. There they found a stream of pure water and a safe harbor for the *Mayflower*.

Miles Standish.

Most of the Pilgrims stepped ashore on the celebrated Plymouth Rock, on the 21st of December, a day since held sacred by their descendants. Although the winter was unusually mild, scarcity of provisions, privations of all kinds,

and close confinement on shipboard, caused disease to break out among them. More than half their number perished before the warm weather of spring set in. Governor Carver died, and was succeeded in office by William Bradford. Such were the terrible sufferings of the great men and pure women who laid the foundation of true republican government on the North American continent.

Settlement of Plymouth.

The joint stock system of living failed as badly with the Pilgrims as it had previously done with the poor gentlemen of the Virginia colony; and not until there was an allotment of land, and every man was obliged to work for the support of himself and his family, did prosperity begin to dawn on the infant settlement. The dependence for supplies on England, and on the contributions of corn from friendly Indians, exerted a most deplorable influence on the first settlers, destroying, as it did, the energy of the people, and leading to indolence and want of foresight. When they began to till their own fields, and to own their own crops, the Pilgrims had something to toil for; and very soon industry, thrift, and economy prevailed — qualities which are essential to man's spiritual and temporal welfare.

Struggle for existence.

The Pilgrims did not escape the usual difficulties with the Indians; but the white man was not in this instance, as in almost every other, the aggressor. Wrongs previously committed upon the natives by adventurers from England had made the savages suspicious and vindictive; and had it not been for the information furnished by a friendly Indian in regard to a conspiracy to suddenly attack and murder the Pilgrims, it is more than likely that the feeble colony would have perished.

Being warned in time, Captain Miles Standish, the bold and fearless military leader, took the field with a small body of armed men, and inspired the Indians with a wholesome terror, by putting a few of the worst of them to death.

Miles Standish.

In addition to these troubles, the Pilgrims were greatly annoyed by evil-minded men who had joined their body in a spirit totally different from that which had prompted them into exile, first in Holland, and afterwards in America. They were annoyed, too, by a low grade of idle adventurers, sent out by the London Company, who had tried to form a settlement within a few miles of Plymouth; but owing to indolence, vice, and cruelty towards the natives, they perished, or wandered off to other settlements. In spite of all difficulties, however, the Puritans grew and prospered, and rapidly established themselves along the coast of Rhode Island and Massachusetts.

Massachusetts Bay Colony.

Charles I. of England for some reason not clearly understood — perhaps for the purpose of getting rid of some of his most formidable enemies — granted a very liberal charter to a corporation known as the Governor and Company of the Massachusetts Bay in New England. Under this charter, freedom of worship was granted. Endicott was appointed deputy governor. In 1628 he established a settlement at Salem. These colonists belonged to a better class, and were better educated than the Pilgrims; but they lacked that perfect unity in religious affairs which prevailed at Plymouth.

Founding of Boston.

Dissatisfied with Salem, exploring expeditions were sent out to select a better site. In 1630 Boston was founded; and colonies were already established at Charlestown, Dorchester, and Roxbury. Thus the Puritans were firmly in possession of the entire coast of Massachusetts Bay and were fully determined to hold and govern the country in their own way. The temporal power they based on the spiritual. They had left their native land, and encountered all the hardships and dangers of a voyage across the Atlantic and settlement in a wilderness peopled by hostile savages, for the purpose of enjoying their peculiar form of worship, undisturbed by royal power on the one hand, or by turbulent dissenters on the other.

Roger Williams, a minister, first at Plymouth and afterwards at Salem, began to preach doctrines at variance with the main body of the Puritans; and although he had been frequently warned, he refused to cease his obnoxious teaching. His religious opinions were ultra-democratic, even for the Puritans; and the governor and council, fearing his influence, had resolved to ship him to England; but Williams, learning their plans, fled into the wilderness, and reached Narragansett Bay.

Roger Williams.

He had been the defender and advocate of the Indian and had insisted that the King had no right to the territory. In his extremity the natives showed their gratitude by coming to his assistance. Doubtless but for them he would have perished; for it was the month of January and the weather was exceedingly cold and the earth was covered with snow. In the spring five of his followers joined him; and Williams, with this small but devoted band, founded, in 1636, the city of Providence (so called because Providence had guided his steps), which became the nucleus of the future State of Rhode Island.

Founding of Providence.

The Dutch, as already stated, had extended their trading posts as far east as the Connecticut River, and in 1633 had founded the city of Hartford. Some of the colonists of Massachusetts Bay, either through a spirit of adventure, or thinking that the land on the banks of this river was more fertile than their own, moved into Connecticut under the leadership of Holmes, and formed a settlement in 1633 at Windsor, in spite of the Dutch claim to the territory. Another settlement was made at Wethersfield in 1635. But it was not until John Winthrop, a son of Governor Winthrop of Massachusetts, was sent out as Governor of Connecticut, under a patent obtained by Lords Say and Brook, that these irregular settlements fell under the control of a stable government. Young Winthrop brought with him to America a force sufficiently strong to repel any attempts which the Dutch might make to drive out the English. The settlements at Hartford,

Connecticut.

Windsor, and Wethersfield continued to prosper until they numbered about eight hundred souls. In 1837 a war broke out with the Pequot tribe of Indians which threatened the destruction of the colonists; but a military band of over a hundred men, under the command of Captain John Mason, was so well handled that the tribe was almost exterminated.

Theophilus Eaton and John Davenport were such ultra Puritans that they could not live among the Puritans of Massachusetts Bay; or perhaps they were alarmed at the treatment of Roger Williams and Mrs. Ann Hutchinson, whom the Puritans had banished a short time before on account of differences in religious opinion. So sailing westward, they selected and purchased from the Indians the present site of New Haven, which in 1638 they formed into a permanent settlement, under a plan of government which simply required the colonists to obey the Scriptures. The migration from Massachusetts stretched along the coast westward almost to the banks of the Hudson, and along the northern shores of Long Island, as far as the town of Flushing.

Sir Ferdinando Gorges and John Mason (not the conqueror of the Pequot Indians) obtained a grant of land between the Merrimac and Kennebec Rivers. As early as 1622, under the patronage of the former, fishing settlements had been made on the coast of Maine, the most important of which was the one at Saco. But either owing to the character of the people, or to a defective plan of government instituted by Gorges, these settlements did not prosper, and after falling into disorder they were absorbed by Massachusetts.

Maine.

In the same year (1622) a settlement was formed at Rye, in New Hampshire, and other settlements subsequently at Dover, Exeter, and Hampton. But the most important colony, composed of farmers and fishermen, was planted in 1630 at Portsmouth, under the auspices of Gorges and Mason. These men were strong adherents of the Established Church of England and, of course, of the

New Hampshire.

royal authority. The colonists whom they sent to America entertained their views, and hence religious differences arose between them and the Puritans who had settled some of the other towns. However, as each town had its own government, which was truly democratic, the contest between the sects was limited to a war of words. In 1643 the New Hampshire settlements were also absorbed by Massachusetts.

George Calvert, before his conversion to the Catholic religion, had been first secretary of state to James I., a member of the London Company, and deeply interested in American colonization. He had received a charter from the King, granting him certain territory on the island of Newfoundland, where he had planted a colony; but owing to the severity of the climate, he was resolved to move farther toward the south. In 1629 he endeavored to establish a colony of Roman Catholics near Jamestown; but religious differences with the Virginia settlers, who were mainly Episcopalians, caused him to abandon the attempt and return to England.

He obtained a charter from James's successor, Charles I., granting him certain territory north of the Potomac, with powers to govern subject only to the King himself. He died, however, before the charter was officially completed; and his titles and rights descended to his son Cecil.

In 1632 Cecil sent out his brother Leonard with two hundred colonists, most of whom were laborers and mechanics, who made a settlement at the mouth of the Potomac.

Maryland.

His purpose was to establish a secure asylum for the persecuted Roman Catholics. This colony deserves credit for two things: first, it granted perfect religious toleration; and, secondly, it established friendly relations with the Indians, whom it treated with kindness and humanity. Although some of the settlers were Protestants, they lived together in harmony, and continued to increase and prosper until the political troubles in England between Charles I. and the Parliament were transported to the American colonies.

CHAPTER X.

THE SETTLEMENT OF OTHER COLONIES.

"Freedom has a thousand charms to show,
That slaves, howe'er contented, never know."

New Jersey.

New Jersey was settled by the Dutch in 1624. They had, however, prior to that time established trading posts on the west bank of the Hudson, and as far east as Hartford. The whole territory was known as New Netherland until its conquest, in 1664, by Colonel Nichols.

Delaware.

In 1638 Delaware was settled at Fort Christiana, now Wilmington, by a colony of Swedes sent out by the South Company of Sweden, which had obtained, in 1624, a charter from their king, the heroic Gustavus Adolphus. Troubles arose between them and the Dutch about the rightful ownership of the territory. The colony prospered because the people were frugal and industrious, until they were attacked, in 1655, by the Dutch governor, Stuyvesant, with an overwhelming force of seven hundred men, and compelled to submit to his authority.

A charter was granted in 1663 by Charles II. to certain favorite noblemen of his court, by which they obtained the ownership of all the territory extending from the southern shore of Virginia to the St. Johns River in Florida, and towards the west indefinitely. A second charter was granted in 1665, extending the boundaries still farther toward the north and south.

The chief patentees were the Earl of Shaftesbury, the Duke of Albemarle and Sir William Berkeley, the governor of Virginia. Prior to these charters a similar charter had been granted by Charles I., in 1630, to Sir Robert Heath, the attorney general, on condition that he would establish a colony and

Christianize the Indians. Neither condition, however, was ever accomplished, and therefore the charter became worthless.

Just as adventurers, discontented persons, and people in quest of religious liberty, had removed from the parent settlements in Massachusetts and New Netherland, so a similar class in Virginia migrated southward, some for purposes of trade, and others to enjoy freedom of worship. In 1653 Roger Green, a clergyman, dissatisfied with the forms and ceremonies of the Church of England, as established in Virginia, founded the first permanent colony on Albemarle Sound, under a grant of a thousand acres from the mother colony. Others, in like manner, at different periods, had established trading stations and settlements on the banks of the rivers; but they were all in turn abandoned.

The Carolinas.

A band of adventurers had gone from New England for the purpose of raising cattle; but getting into difficulties with the Indians, some were killed, and the remainder disappeared from Carolina. Several hundred immigrants from the West Indies, under the leadership of Sir John Yeamans, purchased thirty-two square miles of land from the natives, and settled at Charleston in 1670. This was the first permanent settlement in South Carolina. They asked the English proprietors to confirm this purchase, but their request was refused. However, they granted the settlers terms which proved satisfactory. William Drummond was sent out as governor of the territory, including Albemarle and Clarendon, which subsequently obtained the names of North and South Carolina.

Settlement of Charleston.

The father of William Penn had been an admiral in the English navy. During the civil war between Charles I. and the Parliament, Admiral Penn had loaned the King a sum of money; and when the King's son, Charles II., was restored to the throne, William Penn naturally asked him to pay the just debt. But Charles was generally without money, or had very little to spare from his pleasures; and so it came to pass that he offered Penn in pay-

William Penn.

ment forty thousand square miles of land in America. This was better than nothing; so Penn accepted the King's offer, informing him at the same time that he would purchase the land from the Indians. Doubtless this honest resolution must have seemed very ridiculous to the "Merry Monarch."

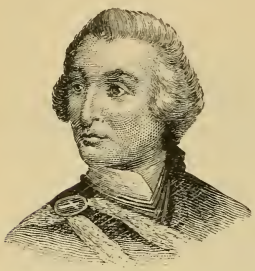
Penn.

William Penn was a Quaker, and a very just and upright man, who was determined to found a colony in which religious toleration would be accorded to every Christian denomination, and in which the Indians would be treated as men entitled to the protection of the law, and not as wild beasts to be hunted and destroyed. In 1681 he sent out three ships containing a superior class of Quaker emigrants, and the following year he came to America himself, accompanied by a hundred more people of the same class. His first duty was to give the colonists a liberal constitution, under which they were permitted to elect all their own officers, except the governor, who was to be chosen by the proprietor. Most of the laws instituted by Penn were excellent. Among them were these: Every child must be taught some trade; criminals must be employed while in prison; all public officers must be professing Christians; and private citizens must believe in God. His object was to build up a state on the foundation of justice, industry, and conscientiousness.

Pennsylvanian Constitution.

General James Oglethorpe was a member of the English Parliament, a man of excellent principles, and remarkable for his humanity. At the period in which he lived debtors were imprisoned, sometimes for life, and oftentimes they were treated

with cruelty. Oglethorpe conceived the idea of founding a colony in America, where these debtors might have an opportunity of retrieving their fallen fortunes. He obtained the assistance of humane men like himself, and they formed themselves into a company to carry out their benevolent undertaking. They obtained a charter from George II., granting them the lands south of South Carolina and north of Florida, to which they gave the name of Georgia, in honor of the King. Under this charter twenty-one trustees were chosen; and they had the right, during the first four years, to elect their own governor and other officers, after which they were to be appointed by the sovereign. To prove the sincerity of their motives, they passed a law that no member of the Company should hold a salaried office. Even Oglethorpe, the first governor, served without pay. In order to encourage industry and the general welfare, slavery was prohibited, and toleration in religion was granted to all except Catholics.



Oglethorpe.

Georgia.

In 1732 Oglethorpe arrived in America with thirty-five selected families, and the next year he founded Savannah, on the banks of the river of the same name. In 1734 a number of German Protestants arrived; and, owing to their habits of industry, proved of great advantage to the colony. Trading posts were established on the Savannah and at other places, and the most cordial relations existed with the Indians. But in spite of all the care with which the Company had matured their plans, the colony did not prosper, because it was impossible to make good farmers out of debtors who had been demoralized by years of enforced idleness. The trustees, seeing that something must be done, sent over more German Protestants, and some Scotch Highlanders, who soon caused the colony to prosper.

Founding of Savannah.

CHAPTER XI.

THE INDIAN AND COLONIAL WARS.

"War in men's eyes shall be,
A monster of iniquity,
In the good time coming."

The Pequot War.

The history of the red man has been written by the white man; and hence there is usually but one side to the story. Had the Indian possessed the ability to write and to print, he might have thrown such a light on events as would alter the opinion of mankind regarding the character and conduct of the early settlers of America. The white man had two powerful weapons — gunpowder and the printing press; the red man had his flint-pointed arrows and his ignorance. Apparently, the cause of the Pequot War was the murder of two Englishmen named Oldham and Stone. The former was evidently a man of rough and violent temper, who had been expelled from the Plymouth colony. He had tried to found settlements in different places along the coast, but without success. He then took to trading with the natives in a vessel of his own. Considering Oldham's character, it is not at all improbable that the Indians attacked him on board his ship, off Block Island, and murdered him in retaliation for some outrage inflicted upon them.

Murder of Oldham and Stone.

Be that as it may, John Endicott of Salem (1637), with a company of a hundred men, was ordered by the magistrates to kill all the men on Block Island, but to spare the women and children. On Endicott's landing, the Indians sought shelter in the interior of the island. The English, however, destroyed two villages, and all the food and wigwams, and sailed away, leaving the natives to starve to death. Endicott then turned

his attention to the Pequots, who had murdered Stone and who tried to form an alliance with the Narragansetts for the purpose of driving the English colonists into the sea. He asked that their chief, Sassacus, should be brought before him; but the wily savage knew better than to trust himself to the tender mercies of the white chief. Endicott ordered an attack; and, as usual, flint-pointed arrows were of no avail against steel and gunpowder, and the savages were forced to find refuge in their forest recesses. The English leader then destroyed their houses and food.

Endicott's attack on the Pequots.

The Indians retaliated by attacking the small Connecticut settlements, killing some of their people, and destroying their crops. Finally, an expedition consisting of three hundred men, under the command of Mason and Underhill, surprised the Pequots in their principal village, and slew four hundred of them. Only five Indians escaped to tell the tale. Only two of the whites were killed! This famous victory ended the "war;" and the Pequots never again troubled the English.

King Philip's War.

Massasoit, the great chief of the Wampanoags, or Pokanokets, had been the friend of the Plymouth colony from the first landing of the Pilgrims to the time of his death. The treaty made between the English and the Indians had been faithfully kept as long as Massasoit was living. But when he died, fears and jealousies arose between the two races. The New England colonists, it is true, had purchased the land from the natives, and had treated them with more humanity than any other settlers had done, the followers of William Penn excepted; but this "purchase" was a one-sided bargain, by which the English obtained many square miles of land in exchange for a few trinkets, blankets, and old muskets. As the colonists overspread the land, the Indians were gradually pushed backward, and forced to abandon the hunting grounds of their forefathers. Hence arose dissatisfaction among the natives, and distrust and apprehension among the English.

Massasoit had left two sons, who at his own request had received the English names, Alexander and Philip. The former, having been called to Plymouth to explain his supposed conspiracy against the colonists, died very suddenly on his way to the town. The Indians said he had been poisoned; the English that he had died of fever. Philip then became chief, or king, of the tribe. For twelve years, from 1662 to 1674, he had managed, under a smooth exterior, to conceal his animosity and desire for revenge. Although frequently called to account for his conduct, he artfully contrived to prove his innocence. Doubtless the real cause of the war was the encroachment of the settlers on the hunting grounds of the Indians; the immediate cause was the murder of an Indian missionary named Sausaman, at the instigation of Philip. Sausaman had incurred the enmity of the chief by informing the English of a conspiracy among the tribes to drive the colonists into the sea. The English executed the murderers.

Cause of the war.

King Philip.

Philip, in revenge, suddenly attacked the people of Swansea as they were returning home from church and killed eight or nine persons. Volunteers from Boston joined the men of Swansea and attacked and routed the Indians. In their flight the savages burned farmhouses and murdered and scalped their inhabitants. Philip took refuge in a swamp at Pocasset, where he was again attacked and routed; but from the nature of the ground the victory was incomplete, and many of the English were slain. The English commander then resolved to starve the Indians into submission. The wily Philip, perceiving this design, managed with his usual dexterity to escape, and fled westward to the present site of Worcester, where he joined his

forces to another tribe called the Nipmucks, which had already commenced war against the whites.

The governor sent Captains Wheeler and Hutchinson to treat with this tribe; but they were suddenly attacked by the Indians in ambush, and lost sixteen men — eight killed and eight wounded. The English fled to Brookfield, closely followed by the savages, who burnt every house except one in which the flying people found refuge. The house was surrounded; and for two days the Indians fired musket balls through the wooden structure, killing only one person. They then made energetic efforts to set the house on fire; but just as the flames began to threaten the besieged with a horrible death, a torrent of rain put out the fire and saved them.

Defeat of the English.

Major Willard then came to their relief, defeated the savages, and slew a considerable number of them. Several towns on the Connecticut River were attacked; many houses were burned, and many of the people murdered. Captain Lathrop, with a band of eighty young men, was surprised and surrounded by eight hundred Indians at Muddy Creek, and seventy of the English were massacred. Captain Mosely, on hearing the rattle of musketry, hastened to the scene of action, and slew ninety-six and wounded forty of the enemy. A contagion of crime seemed to have seized the savages. Those hitherto friendly to the white men suddenly became their deadliest foes. Springfield was attacked by a tribe that had lived for years in amity with the English. It was saved, however, by the timely arrival of a force from Westfield.

Everywhere throughout New England the Indians took up arms to exterminate the colonists or drive them away. Matters wore an ugly look for the English. Finally, Governor Winslow collected a large force, and marched out to attack the Indians, who had strongly fortified themselves in a swamp. With great courage he assaulted them in their palisaded stronghold, slew seven hundred warriors, took many prisoners, and set six hundred wigwams on fire, in which many women, children, and old

and infirm men miserably perished. The few who survived sought safety in flight. The savages never recovered from this terrible blow. Doubtless stern necessity compelled Governor Winslow to strike terror into the hearts of the Indians, who had spared neither age nor sex. The conflict had reached a point where either the colonists had to abandon New England to the savages, or crush them into absolute submission by using their own weapons, fire and sword, without quarter and without mercy. It was impossible to conduct hostilities against them according to the rules of civilized warfare. The dreadful chastisement administered by Winslow forever destroyed the power of the Indians in New England. Still they continued to burn, destroy, and murder wherever an opportunity presented itself.

Winslow subdues the Indians.

At last their wily, warlike, and able chief was surprised in his stronghold at Mount Hope, Rhode Island, by Captain Church, who had learned to practice the Indian method of warfare. In an attempt to escape, Philip was slain by one of his own countrymen, fighting on the side of the English. His death virtually ended the war, which had lasted more than a year.

CHAPTER XII.

THE GROWTH OF THE COLONIES.

"'Ay,' quoth my uncle Gloster,
'Small herbs have grace, great weeds do grow apace;
And since, methinks, I would not grow so fast,
Because sweet flowers are slow and weeds make haste.'"

VIRGINIA.

IN the beginning, and indeed for a long period afterwards, the Virginia colony was unfortunate in many ways: in the character of the first settlers, the broken-down English gentlemen, too proud or too lazy to work; in the weak character of the criminals and kidnapped boys and girls sent out as "indented servants;" in the introduction of African slave labor, the curse of any country that uses it; in the inhuman treatment of the Indians by some of the settlers; in the frequent massacres of the whites, the natural result of such treatment; and, above all, in the feeble or despotic character of most of the governors.

Evils in Virginia.

Charles I.

Charles I., owing to his determined effort to rule England like an Eastern despot, was slowly but surely paving his way to that scaffold on which he subsequently perished. He sent out to Virginia a royal governor, a man after his own heart, whose political principles were, if possible, worse than his own. This man was Sir John

Harvey. Very soon he fell into trouble with the colonists, who, unable to bear his tyranny, deposed him. He then returned to England to plead his cause before the King. Charles, with his usual obstinacy, sent him back to Virginia, where he remained as governor until he was superseded by Wyatt.

Deposition of Harvey.

In 1642 Wyatt was succeeded by the celebrated Sir William Berkeley, a man of marked ability, but if possible more despotic in his views than Harvey. Berkeley in 1644 suppressed a second rising of the Indians. Although there were frequent quarrels between the royal governor and the people, they remained truly loyal to the King in his deadly conflict with his Parliament. After the execution of Charles I. (1649) so many of the defeated Royalists of the better class found refuge in Virginia, that the population increased in twenty years from fifteen thousand to forty thousand. So strong had the colony become, that Berkeley even invited the fugitive son of the late King to come over and find a home among his loyal subjects.

Cromwell.

But Oliver Cromwell, a rigid Puritan of great ability and indomitable will, had risen to be the supreme ruler of Great Britain and Ireland, under the title of Lord Protector of the Commonwealth. He resolved with his usual vigor to crush the Royalist party in Virginia. Accordingly, he appointed Puritan commissioners to take possession of the territory, and govern it in the interest of the Commonwealth. Richard Bennet was made governor; and on his arrival in Chesapeake Bay the colonists were too weak to offer resistance to his authority. The rule of the

Richard Bennet.

Puritan governors under the administration of Cromwell was conducted according to law, and the colony prospered. The Restoration, in 1660, caused a revolution in Virginia. The Puritans were deposed, and the Royalists were restored to power.

Charles II. made a present of Virginia to Lords Arlington and Culpeper. The Navigation Act was enforced, by which all exports of tobacco were to be sent to English ports, and all imports of any kind from the European continent must be carried in English ships. This act, together with the harsh treatment of the Puritans, caused a rebellion in 1663, which was promptly suppressed. In 1676 another rebellion far greater in extent sprang up, under the leadership of Nathaniel Bacon, which at first promised to be successful. Bacon burned Jamestown and put Berkeley to flight. But the leader dying soon after of swamp fever, the rebels were unable to make a stand against the power of the Governor.

Bacon's Rebellion.

Berkeley reëstablished his tyrannical rule; but such was his cruelty that even Charles reprimanded and recalled him. It is said that he died of a broken heart. In spite of Indian massacres, of the Navigation Act, and of rebellions against tyrannic royal governors, the Virginia colony continued to grow and prosper. This prosperity was due largely to the profits arising from the cultivation of and trade in tobacco.

New England.

The introduction of printing in England, and the destruction of the feudal system by the Tudor sovereigns, had created a powerful middle class, who found an outlet for their talents in trade, commerce, and manufactures. It was the policy of Henry VII. and his immediate successors to crush the power of the great nobles, so that no one in the future could make and unmake kings as Warwick had done during the reigns of Henry VI. and Edward IV. Gradually, during the reigns of Edward VI., Mary, and Elizabeth, a religious body arose totally

opposed to the forms and ceremonies of the Church of England, and strongly in favor of a democratic form of worship. Democracy in religion was followed by democracy in politics. Under the strong government of the Tudors, the Puritans remained comparatively passive. But on the accession of James I., matters in church and state assumed a different aspect. The seventeenth century was a century of religious excitement. Civil wars and persecutions prevailed over the greater portion of northern and western Europe; and England did not escape the catastrophe. In another place we have described the persecution of the Puritans, their taking refuge in Holland, their emigration to America, their deadly contests with the Indians in two wars, and their toils and sufferings during the first years of their settlement.

Civil and religious wars.

The communistic plan of government — if such it may be called — was tried in New England, but failed, as it had previously failed in Virginia. What is everybody's business is nobody's business. When the land was tilled in common, and all were supported from a common stock, each laborer relied on all the others; and soon there was an end of that foresight, thrift, and energy so essential to success. The settlers were obliged to distribute the land and allot twenty acres to each household. In 1643 there were only three thousand inhabitants in Plymouth, and about twenty-five thousand scattered over the settlements from Maine to the borders of New Netherland. The first governments were pure democracies, and so continued until 1638, when, owing to the establishment of so many towns, the representative system was instituted by which each township was entitled to two delegates. Purely local matters were managed by primary assemblies.

Population of New England in 1643.

In these forms of democratic and republican governments, it is easy to trace the germs of the present Constitution of the United States. As might be expected with a people with whom religion was by far the greatest concern of life, the gov-

ernment of the New England settlements was to a great extent controlled by clergymen. Two ministers, John Cotton and Nathaniel Ward, presented a plan of government entitled "The Body of Liberties," which was a combination of the laws of England and the laws of Moses. This code was in most respects admirable. It secured equal rights for all; it protected the person from imprisonment, and his property from seizure, except by due process of law; it required humane treatment of the lower animals; it would not permit any person to be tried twice for the same offense; it provided against the expenditure of the public money except with the consent of the taxpayers; it prohibited cruel punishments and slavery, except under certain conditions. But as to the objectionable features of this "Body of Liberties" — this union of the Mosaic law with the laws of England — there is, perhaps, no better commentary than the law fixing the death penalty for witchcraft and treason.

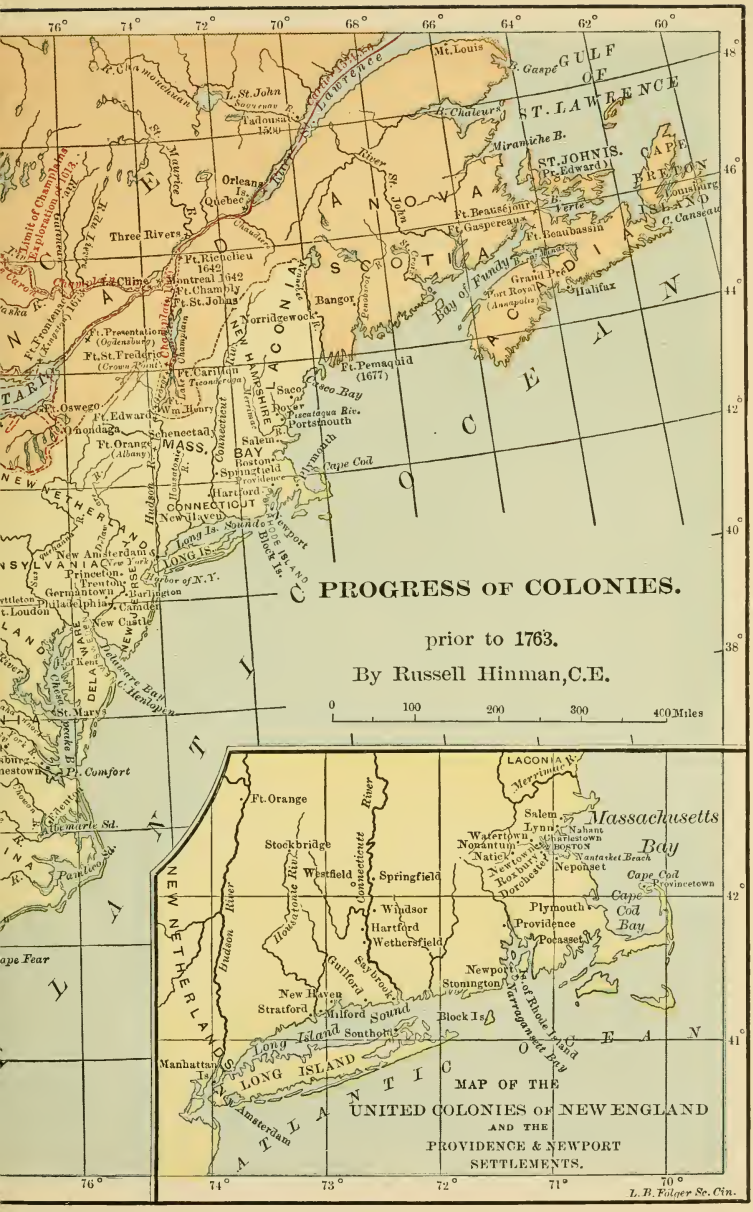
"The Body of Liberties."

The Massachusetts Bay Colony, though younger than that of Plymouth, grew in a few years to be the chief center of New England. Her people were more intelligent, and of course her affairs were managed with greater skill and success. Many of the settlements, stretching from the Connecticut to the shores of Maine, were small and weak, and in danger, not only from the Indians, but from the Dutch on the west, and the French on the north.

The people of Connecticut, in 1637, proposed a union with Massachusetts, which was at first declined. But the agitation going on in England between Charles I. and the Parliament was just reaching a point where if the King succeeded he might undertake to punish the dissenters in New England, whose sympathies were naturally against him in the struggle. Hence Englishmen in America soon perceived the necessity for union. Massachusetts Bay, Plymouth, Connecticut, and New Haven entered into an alliance offensive and defensive, entitled, "The United Colonies of New England." Rhode

United Colonies of New England.

96°
94°
92°
90°
88°
86°
84°
82°
80°
48°
46°
44°
42°
40°
38°
36°
34°
32°
30°
Red River of the North
Ft. LaHontan 1680
Isle Minong
LAKE SUPERIOR
Chequamegon Bay
Ste. Theresa Bay
La Pointe Mission 1666
L. Buade (Mille Lac)
St Croix R.
Falls of St. Anthony 1680
Sault Ste. Marie 1641
1670. St Ignace founded
Ste. of Michilimackinac
L. Nipissang
French R.
Georgian Bay
LAKE HURON
Wisconsin R.
Fox R.
Ft. St. Xavier 1769
Green Bay
Menistee R.
Hennepin captured by Sioux Apl. 12th 1680
Mississippi River
Muskegon
La Salle 1679
La Salle 1681
Ft. Joseph (Miamis) 1679
Ft. Detroit
LAKE MICHIGAN
Chicago
La Salle 1680
LAKE ERIE
Ft. Presque Isle
Illinois River
Ft. St. Louis
La Salle
Villages
Ft. Miami (Miamis) 1748
French Ft. (Tuſcaro) 1640
Ft. Kekionga 1660
Ft. Sandusky
Ft. Venango
Ft. Le Bo
Ft. Crevecoeur 1680
Illinois R.
Wabash R.
St. Mary R.
Maumee R.
Ft. Duque
Ft. Birdy
Ft. Necessity
Ft. Chamberlain
Missouri River
Ft. Chartres
Ft. Casquiars
Kaskaskias
Ft. Kaskaskias
Ft. Vincennes 1732
Falls of Ohio
La Belle Riviere
Kenawha R.
Ohio River
Kentucky Riv.
Cumberland R.
Ft. Massaqe (Assumption)
Ft. Chissel 1768
Ft. Lewis 1756
Clinch River
Ft. Patrick Henry 1758
Holston R.
French post (1714) (Nashville)
Arkansas River
Mississippi River
Ft. Prudhomme (Memphis) 1682
Ft. Loudoun 1756
Tenassee River
French post
Ft. Dobbs 1756
Yadkin R.
Ft. Akenseas
Line Marquette & Joliet 1673
Ft. Pt. George 1756
Etowah R.
Saluda R.
Waterree R.
Congaree R.
Ft. Tyger R.
Ft. Francis
Ft. Toulouse (1714)
Ft. Tombigbee (1735)
Ft. Ofuskee 1735
Augusta
Ft. Moore
Charleston
Ft. Ebenezer
Port Royal
Savannah R.
Nachitoches
Ft. Rosalie (Natches)
Black Riv.
Red Riv.
Pte Coupee
Baton Rouge
Mobile (1702)
Pensacola
Ft. Argyle
Darien
St. Simons Is.
Frederica
Carrs Ft.
Ft. William
St. Marys Riv.
St. Johns R.
Ft. Diego
St. Augustine
St Andrews
Ft.
NEW SPAIN
FLORIDA
New Orleans 1717
Dauphin Is. 1752
GULF OF MEXICO
Appalachee Bay
Ft. St. Francis
92°
90°
88°
86°
84°
82°
80°


PROGRESS OF COLONIES.
prior to 1763.
By Russell Hinman, C.E.
0 100 200 300 400 Miles
MAP OF THE
UNITED COLONIES OF NEW ENGLAND
AND THE
PROVIDENCE & NEWPORT
SETTLEMENTS.
L. B. Folger Sc. Cin.
GULF OF ST. LAWRENCE
ATLANTIC OCEAN
CANADA
NOVA SCOTIA
ACADIA
NEW ENGLAND
NEW YORK
NEW JERSEY
PENNSYLVANIA
MARYLAND
VIRGINIA
Mt. Louis
R. Gaspé
R. Chaleurs
Miramichi B.
ST. JOHNS. (St. Edward)
CAPE BRETON ISLAND
Louisburg
C. Canseau
L. St. John
Quebec
Orleans Is.
Three Rivers
Ft. Richelieu 1642
Montreal 1642
Ft. Chambly
Ft. St. Johns
Ft. Beauséjour
Ft. Gaspereau
Ft. Beaubassin
Grand Pré
Port Royal (Annapolis)
Halifax
Bay of Fundy
Bangor
Norridgewock
Ft. Pemaquid (1677)
Saco
Saco Bay
Dover
Piscataqua Riv.
Portsmouth
Ft. Presentation (Ogdensburg)
Ft. St. Frederic (Crown Point)
Ft. Carillon (Ticonderoga)
Ft. Oswego
Ft. Edward
Ft. Orange (Albany)
Schenectada
Salem
Boston
Springfield
Cape Cod
Plymouth
Hartford
New Haven
Long Is. Sound
Newport
Block Is.
New Amsterdam (New York)
Long Is.
Harbor of N.Y.
Princeton
Trenton
Germantown
Philadelphia
Burlington
Camden
New Castle
St. Mary's
Ft. Comfort
Ft. Orange
Stockbridge
Westfield
Springfield
Windsor
Hartford
Wethersfield
New Haven
Stratford
Milford
Guilford
Saybrook
Long Island Sound
Southold
Manhattan Is.
Amsterdam
Salem
Lynn
Watertown
Charlestown
Nonantum
BOSTON
Natick
Roxbury
Dorchester
Nantasket Beach
Neponset
Cape Cod
Provincetown
Plymouth
Providence
Pocasset
Newport
Stonington
Block Is.
Narragansett Bay
Rhode Island
Connecticut River
Housatonic River
Hudson River
Merrimack
LACONIA

Island and Maine applied for admission, but were refused on account of their loyalty to the King.

Although the Massachusetts Bay Colony was by far the most populous and powerful, it frequently suffered from a coalition of the other three colonies. Nevertheless, the union was faithfully maintained, and added greatly to the strength and prosperity of New England. During the period from 1643 to 1660 the colonies were left to themselves, undisturbed by king or royal governor. But on the restoration of Charles II. matters assumed a different form. The King accused the colonies of disloyalty, and of forming a confederacy to give aid and comfort to his enemies.

The colonies no doubt sympathized with Cromwell and the other "regicides," and naturally dreaded the restoration of the Stuarts. Massachusetts sent two agents to England for the purpose of conciliating the King. Charles was easily appeased. All he demanded was that equal rights should be given to all settlers, without regard to their religious opinions, and that all state papers should be issued in the King's name.

Conciliation with Charles II.

New York.

The English colonies of Virginia and New England were cut off from communication by the Dutch settlements, which extended from the Delaware to the Connecticut. During the great civil war in England, the Dutch pushed their trading settlements to such an extent as to annoy the English colonists. Hence frequent territorial disputes sprang up between the two races. In 1654, while at war with Holland, Cromwell sent out a fleet to seize New Netherland; but peace was established before anything was accomplished. It will be remembered that England claimed the continent from Newfoundland to Florida, in consequence of the discoveries of the Cabots; and nothing but the cowardice of James I., and the political troubles of his successors, Charles I. and Oliver Cromwell, prevented the English from asserting their right to this vast extent of terri-

tory. New Netherland certainly contained, in the town of New Amsterdam and in the Hudson River, the finest site for a commercial emporium to be found anywhere along the Atlantic coast.

In the Dutch government of New Netherland, Peter Minuit had been superseded by Wouter Von Twiller (1633), under whose administration the English began encroachments on the Dutch territory in Long Island and Connecticut, while at the same time the Swedes were forming settlements on the Delaware. The West India Company, dissatisfied with Van Twiller's government, recalled him, and sent out Sir William Kieft (1638) as his successor. Kieft signalized his administration by great cruelty toward the Indians; and the colonists, always inclined to treat the natives justly, becoming disgusted with his barbarity, demanded his removal.

Dutch governors of New York.

He was succeeded by Peter Stuyvesant, the most distinguished of the Dutch governors, whose great kindness towards the Indians aroused the suspicion of the English that he had formed the design of combining the savages against the New England settlements. In order to put an end, at least for a time, to the perpetual disputes regarding territorial rights, Stuyvesant made a treaty with the English by which the boundary of New Netherland on the east was to extend on Long Island as far as Oyster Bay, and on the mainland of Connecticut as far as the town of Greenwich.

Under the rule of their governors, especially under Kieft and Stuyvesant, the Dutch settlers possessed very little liberty, and their influence in the government was next to nothing. In their intercourse with the English they had seen and envied the freedom and rights guaranteed to the people in the New England township governments. Hence, when Charles II. granted his brother James, Duke of York, the whole territory from the Connecticut to the Delaware; and when, in order to take possession of this grant, the latter sent out Colonel Nichols (1664),

Col. Nichols captures New Netherlands.

Stuyvesant did not find many loyal supporters to resist the English invasion. In fact, the Dutch offered no resistance: they surrendered New Amsterdam without a blow; and Nichols named the town and territory New York, in honor of his employer and patron. Fort Orange received the name of Albany.

However, though the government was changed, the manners, customs, religion, and language of the Dutch colonists remained unchanged. Nichols, the new governor, issued a code of laws very much superior to that of the Dutch West India Company, under which the people prospered for nine years. War having broken out once more between England and Holland, the latter country sent out a fleet, in 1673, which captured the province and held it for four months; but by the treaty of Westphalia it was restored to the English.

The colony prospered under the administration of Governor Andros. He made an effort to neutralize the difficulties in regard to land titles, caused by the grant of the territory now known as New Jersey to Carteret and Berkeley. But these men, owing to their influence at the court of England, were able to secure his recall. Andros was succeeded by Governor Dongan, under whom the celebrated charter known by his name was adopted. This charter granted the franchise to all freeholders; it made the assembly coördinate with the governor and council; it guaranteed religious liberty; it provided that taxes could not be raised except with the consent of the assembly, and that all laws must be approved by the Duke of York. But this liberal form of government did not last long. The duke came to the throne under the title of James II., and proved himself a most arbitrary sovereign. As king he undid most of his wise acts as duke. He issued an order to establish the Church of England in the colony, and to allow no schools unless licensed by the church.

The Dongan charter.

CHAPTER XIII.

THE GROWTH OF THE COLONIES — Continued.

"Thus the mercury of man is fixed,
Strong grows his virtue with his nature mixed."

DURING the first century of English colonization in America the settlements extended along a narrow strip of coast from Maine to Florida, and along the banks of the navigable rivers.[1] Periodic famines and fevers thinned the infant settlements. Gradually, however, a better class of men came to America, notably to Massachusetts, who taught the people how to live. The great civil war in England, as before remarked, caused a large emigration of defeated Royalists to Virginia. This consisted of an educated class, who became the progenitors of the "first families." The overthrow of the Commonwealth and the restoration of Charles II. compelled many of the republican followers of Cromwell to seek safety and fortune in New England. Thus the misfortunes of the mother country became a source of strength to the young and struggling colonies.

Population of the colonies.

It is estimated that towards the close of the first century of settlement in America, the total population of the thirteen colonies scarcely amounted to two hundred thousand — a number less than the emigration from Great Britain or Germany in a single year during the decade between 1850 and 1860. More than a third of all the inhabitants belonged to Massachusetts, which contained as many people as Virginia and New York combined, notwithstanding the fact that they were both settled before New England.

[1] In order to avoid confusion in this narrative, no attempt is made to describe the Spanish settlements on the Gulf of Mexico, or the French settlements along the shores of the Great Lakes and on the banks of the St. Lawrence and the Mississippi.

Agriculture was, of course, the chief employment of the first settlers. The farming was rude and primitive, and performed with the poorest implements. The cultivation of tobacco in Virginia, and the fur trade throughout most of the colonies, created a considerable commerce with England and added not a little to the general prosperity. Beef, pork, fish, and grain were also exported; and in return the people obtained the merchandise so necessary to their comfort. The iniquitous Navigation Act was a great impediment to commercial enterprise. The growth of manufactures was very slow. The first attempts to manufacture in New England failed, partly because there was more profit in trade.

Education was not neglected. To the credit of New England be it said that the first settlers always established common schools for the education of all classes. On the contrary, Virginia founded schools for the higher classes only. As early as 1637 the Massachusetts Bay Colony established a college at Newtown, and named it Cambridge. Afterwards the name was changed to Harvard, in honor of the Rev. John Harvard, who bequeathed it the sum of £800.

Founding of Harvard College.

In the life of the New England colonist, his religion was always his chief consideration. It was the pivotal point on which all his actions turned. He was only a pilgrim and a sojourner on earth. This world was only a place of probation. His habits, customs, conduct, and character were based upon his creed; and yet, though grave, stern, and austere, he was manly, bold, and courageous. Nor was he deficient in the sound common sense which is the chief factor of success in business. The laws were largely sumptuary. Life was too solemn and serious to be wasted in frivolous amusement or in luxury. There was neither music nor theater for adults; nor were there toys or games for children. The moral atmosphere was virtuous, but somber as a sunless sky. The Puritan loved freedom, but he never mistook license for liberty. He was

Character of the New Englanders.

the progenitor of that hardy and indomitable race who subsequently formed the vanguard of the armies that wrested the thirteen colonies from the grasp of the King of England, and who, in after years, spread themselves from the shores of Maine and Massachusetts to the Lakes and the Pacific, and shaped the policy of the great northwestern States — the States mainly instrumental in giving slavery its death blow.

Harvard College.

Character of the Dutch.

For many years the Dutch in New York and New Jersey, even under English rule, preserved their language, customs, and religion, and could scarcely be distinguished from their brethren in Holland. They were remarkable for their thrift and honesty. They were good traders and extended their commerce. It was quite natural that such a people should leave a posterity capable of making the city of New York the commercial emporium of the New World.

Virginia, from the very nature of its settlement, contained two distinct classes: one proud, haughty, and courageous; and the other ignorant, indolent, and dependent, commonly known as "white trash." These two classes extended from the James to the Savannah, and their religion was mainly that of the Church of England. Among a people consisting of two such classes, perhaps slavery, in the early period, became almost a necessity. The broken-down gentlemen who first settled the territory, reënforced later by the defeated followers of Charles I., were too proud to toil with their hands for a living, and the "indented" white slaves and their descendants were too lazy or too vicious for steady and continuous labor. From what may be called the upper class sprang the Washingtons, Jeffersons, and Madisons, whose early election to the presidency of the United States earned for Virginia the proud title of the "Mother of Presidents."

Classes in Virginia.

Thus during the first century of settlement two antagonistic forces grew up along the Atlantic coast, separated only by comparatively small settlements of Dutch and Swedes, whose homes were on the banks of the Hudson and the Delaware. The Quakers of Pennsylvania resembled in many respects the Puritans of New England; and the Catholics and other high churchmen of Maryland were very much in accord with their brethren of Virginia. A common struggle for existence against fever, famine, and the Indian, against the encroachments of the French, and afterwards against their common enemy, the King of England, prevented these two antagonistic forces from coming into collision for a period of more than a hundred and fifty years.

During the first century of settlement, New England was subject to periodic outbreaks of a singular superstition known as witchcraft. Even enlightened men in England and America at this period believed in it as firmly as they believed in the Bible. Indeed, they found their authority for their belief in it in the Scriptures. Great divines and great lawyers, in common with the ignorant,

Witchcraft in New England.

did not escape the delusion. The lonely New England shore with the wild waves ever roaring against it, the dense woods with their weird inhabitants, the want of recreation and amusement, the gloom caused by their religious habits, all tended to work on the imagination of a people accustomed in a great degree to solitary labor, and to arouse that superstition to which mankind is more or less prone.

Witchcraft first made its appearance in 1645, when several persons were put to death for it in Massachusetts. Then it slumbered until 1687. In this year an Irishwoman was executed on the charge of having bewitched four children. In 1692 the disease (for disease of the imagination it certainly was) broke out with redoubled fury, and accusations of witchcraft were not limited as heretofore to the poor and the ignorant; they extended to some of the first families in New England. During the existence of this species of insanity, nineteen persons were executed, a hundred and fifty imprisoned, and two hundred accused. Like other infectious diseases, it ran its course and disappeared.

Rise and progress of the delusion.

CHAPTER XIV.

THE COLONIAL WARS.

"She saw her sons with purple death expire,
Her sacred domes involved in rolling fire,
A dreadful series of intestine wars,
Inglorious triumphs, and dishonest scars."

King William's War.

Whenever England and France went to war, Englishmen and Frenchmen in America foolishly went to war too, instead of living wisely and peaceably in their large territory. James II. succeeded his brother Charles II. The latter had secretly lived and died a Roman Catholic; the former lived up to his religious convictions, and was undoubtedly a sincere adherent of the ancient faith. James was but a short time king when he fell into trouble with his Protestant subjects.

William III.

He was a comparatively old man when he came to the throne. He had two daughters married; one to William, Prince of Orange, and the other to George, Prince of Denmark. The English were in rebellion against their sovereign, and called over William to their assistance. The Prince of Orange managed to defeat his father-in-law, and drove him into exile in France, where he lived a pensioner on the bounty of Louis

William, Prince of Orange.

XIV. The King of France espoused the cause of the deposed monarch; and this led (1689) to war between France and England.

The people of Massachusetts, learning of the revolution in England, determined to have a little revolution of their own. So they seized, imprisoned, and finally sent to England, the royal governor, Sir Edmund Andros, to account for his usurpation and tyranny to King William's ministers. In this manner the New England colonies recovered the liberties which they had lost under James II., both before and after he became king. A similar revolution took place in New York, but under totally different circumstances. Jacob Leisler, an ignorant Dutch shopkeeper, at the head of a mob, seized the government, and drove out Nicholson, who was acting as Governor Dongan's deputy. Many of the better class in New York refused to submit to Leisler's authority, and fled to Albany which was held against him. The King sent out a new governor, Colonel Sloughter, who defeated Leisler, and put him to death for treason.

Sir Edmund Andros.

The French settlements in Canada contained a sparse population, and, single-handed, could not cope with either New York or New England. But they were living in amity with the Indians, whom they had generally treated with humanity, and with whom they now formed an alliance for the purpose of invading the English colonies. Frontenac, the governor of Canada, fitted out three expeditions — the first against New York, the second against New Hampshire, and the third against Maine. The French and their savage allies suddenly attacked the town of Schenectady in the dead of night and massacred sixty of the inhabitants, among whom were some women and children. The second expedition burned Salmon Falls, in New Hampshire, and murdered thirty of the people, besides taking fifty prisoners. The third expedition destroyed the settlement at Casco, Maine, and killed and captured a hundred of the inhabitants. In retaliation, Massachusetts sent out a fleet

Frontenac's expeditions.

under Sir William Phipps, which captured Port Royal, in Nova Scotia. Another expedition, formed by New York, Massachusetts, and Connecticut, to seize Montreal and Quebec, was unsuccessful.

The Indian tribes, known as the Five Nations, who had been long settled on the banks of the Susquehanna, and who had been hitherto friendly to the English, became dissatisfied, and threatened to make peace with the French. At the same time the King of France sent out a powerful expedition for the purpose of capturing Boston and New York; but, fortunately, it arrived in American waters too late in the season to effect anything of importance. In the meantime the treaty of Ryswick (1697) put an end to the war in Europe, and brought peace to the colonies.

The Five Nations.

Queen Anne's War.

Five years after the treaty of Ryswick (1702), another war, known as Queen Anne's War, or the War of the Spanish Succession, broke out between France and England. The royal line of Ferdinand and Isabella had become extinct, and Louis XIV. was determined to place a member of his family on the vacant throne. This would make France, already too powerful, the strongest nation in Europe, and would still further tend to destroy that "balance of power" for which William III. had struggled so long and so valiantly. War was accordingly declared between the two great nations, and their countrymen in the American colonies were soon involved in hostilities.

Queen Anne.

The English greatly outnumbered the French; but the latter, as in the previous war, made cruel use of their Indian allies.

The chief brunt of the war fell on New England, on account of its exposed position and its proximity to the Canadian frontier. Many towns were burned, and many of their inhabitants murdered. New York was protected by the friendship of the Five Nations who formed a barrier against the incursions of the French and Indians. Two expeditions were sent out from Massachusetts to capture Nova Scotia — one in 1704 and the other in 1707; but both failed. Another expedition against Montreal, by way of Lake Champlain, also proved a failure. Finally, a more powerful expedition under Colonel Nicholson, captured Port Royal, and renamed it Annapolis, in honor of Queen Anne. The war was ended in 1713 by the treaty of Utrecht.

Expeditions of the war.

King George's War.

In 1744 another war broke out in Europe, known as the War of the Austrian Succession. The Austrian emperor, Charles VI., dying without a male heir, was succeeded by his daughter, Maria Theresa. Her accession was in direct violation of the Salic law, which prevailed in Austria; and therefore the Elector of Bavaria claimed the throne, and was supported by the Bourbon kings of France and Spain. But the deceased emperor had obtained the consent of most of the European powers in favor of his daughter's succession, by what was known as the Pragmatic Sanction. England thereupon formed an alliance with Holland and Saxony in favor of the Austrian empress, and boldly declared war against France and Spain.

George II.

Then, as a matter of course, the English colonists were obliged to fight the French and Spaniards in the New World. The most important event in this war was the capture by Sir William Phipps of Louisburg, a strong fortress on the island of Cape Breton (1745), which had been a place of retreat for French privateers while preying on American commerce. Next year the King of France sent out a great armament, consisting of forty ships of war, many transports, and a considerable force of soldiers, to recapture the fortress; but it met a fate similar to that of the Spanish Armada in the time of Elizabeth: it was scattered by storms, and most of the ships were wrecked. The expedition was a complete failure. The peace of Aix-la-Chapelle (1748) concluded the war; and by its terms all conquests were restored and among them Louisburg, to the French.

Capture of Louisburg.

French Explorations and Settlements.

The treaty of Aix-la-Chapelle was little more than a truce which gave the wearied and exhausted monarchs a rest from the trade of war. It failed to settle boundary lines between the English and French colonists in America; so that from 1748 to 1755, hostilities between the rival settlers were scarcely interrupted. Both parties perceived that the two points of interest — the river St. Lawrence and the valley of the Ohio — must be ultimately fought for if either was to be master of the North American continent.

While the Spaniards were establishing themselves along the shores of the Gulf of Mexico, and the English along the Atlantic coast, the French were quietly penetrating the northwest by the way of the St. Lawrence and the Great Lakes. Quebec was founded in 1608 by Champlain, and Montreal in 1611. The lake that now bears his name was discovered and explored by him; but the unrelenting hostility of the Iroquois prevented his further movements toward the south. Hence the French adventurers were forced to take a westerly direction. The severity of the long

Quebec and Montreal.

Canadian winter caused farming along the banks of the St. Lawrence to prove a difficult and precarious employment. The farmers turned fur traders, much preferring the wandering and adventurous life of the hunter to the drudgery of farm labor.

As early as 1641 the French trading posts had extended as far west as Sault Ste. Marie, and in 1658 two adventurers had penetrated the wilderness probably as far west as the source of the Mississippi. Be this as it may, Father Marquette and Joliet unquestionably reached the Father of Waters in 1673. The mouth of the river, as previously narrated, had been discovered by the Spanish explorer Ferdinand de Soto in 1641. After the death of Marquette, the greatest of all the French explorers, La Salle, discovered the Chicago River, which he named the Divine River. The Indian name, however, has outlived the name given by the pious Frenchman. With great energy, consummate skill, and undaunted courage, he navigated the Mississippi to the Gulf of Mexico, and claimed, in the name of his sovereign, all the vast territory west of the great river to the Rocky Mountains, and from the Gulf to the Great Lakes, and named it Louisiana in honor of Louis XIV., King of France.

Marquette and La Salle.

Thus from Quebec to the mouth of the Mississippi, on the northern shores of the Lakes, as well as on the Illinois and the Ohio, the French had established a chain of forts and trading posts, widely apart, and inhabited by a few thousand people. But they were supported by Indian tribes, many of whose braves they had converted to Christianity. A stronger bond of union, however, was established between them — the French and Indians intermarried. And although this helped the French in the beginning, it ultimately led to their loss of North America.

CHAPTER XV.

THE FRENCH AND INDIAN WAR.

"Sound trumpets! — let our bloody colors wave!
And either victory, or else a grave."

In consequence of the discoveries and explorations of the Cabots, England claimed all the territory westward from the Atlantic, which included the fertile valleys of the Ohio and the Mississippi. The French had made encroachments in Nova Scotia and had fortified Crown Point. They had taken and fortified strong positions as far east as Pittsburg, then called Fort Duquesne, which commanded the Ohio River. The previous colonial wars had originated in the disputes of the European monarchs; but the French and Indian War originated in the disputes of the American colonists, which in a short time involved England and France in a long and bloody war.

Causes of the war.

The immediate cause of the war was the so-called intrusion of the Ohio Company on the territory which the French claimed as their own. This company, consisting of Englishmen and Virginians, had obtained a grant of six hundred thousand acres of land on the Ohio River, for the purpose of carrying on the fur trade with the Indians. Hitherto the Pennsylvanians had conducted a profitable trade with the natives; and fearing that the Ohio Company would turn this trade into another channel, these Pennsylvanians excited the fears of the Indians, and gave secret information to the French Governor.

The French claim.

The Governor of Canada immediately notified the governors of New York and Pennsylvania that the French claimed all the territory between the Mississippi and the Alleghany Mountains, and that the English fur traders were intruders on the lands belonging to France. The governor seized and imprisoned some of the English traders,

and a tribe of Indians with whom the latter had been trading seized in retaliation several Frenchmen, and sent them prisoners to Pennsylvania. The Ohio Company, perceiving the danger that threatened their trade, appealed to Governor Dinwiddie of Virginia for protection. He laid their appeal before the assembly, which directed that a messenger should be sent to the French commander on the Ohio, to demand the reasons for his hostility, and to order him to abandon the forts and territory which of right belonged to the English.

The person selected to perform this delicate and dangerous duty was a young man, then in his twenty-first year, named *George Washington*, who was destined thereafter to play so distinguished a part in the drama of American history. Born of a good family of Norman-English descent, and trained in the rough and hardy school of the land surveyor, he was thoroughly equipped in all respects for the mission with which he was intrusted. Tall, well-formed, and vigorous in mind and body, bold and courageous, while at the same time cautious and prudent, he possessed in an eminent degree those qualities of head and heart which enabled him to perform a journey of four hundred miles, one half of which was through a trackless desert filled with treacherous Indians. He performed his mission with success; delivered Dinwiddie's letter, and received a letter in return, in which the French Commander stated that he would forward the Governor's communication to the Governor of Canada, from whom alone he could receive orders, and whom alone he would obey.

George Washington.

Washington.

Without a formal declaration of war, the English govern-

ment directed the Virginians to resist the encroachments of the French by force of arms. Accordingly, a regiment of militia was raised, and Washington was assigned to command an expedition to expel the French from English territory. In 1754, he reached Great Meadows in Pennsylvania, where he surprised and captured a small body of French soldiers. Here he constructed a fort, which he named Fort Necessity, in which he took refuge from a superior force of the enemy under De Villiers. But with only four hundred men he found it impossible to hold out against nearly four times his numbers. After a fight which lasted a few hours, Washington surrendered with the honors of war, and was permitted to return unmolested to Virginia.

Surrender of Fort Necessity.

The British ministry advised a union of all the English colonies against the incursions of the French and Indians; and accordingly, delegates from Massachusetts, New Hampshire, Rhode Island, Connecticut, Pennsylvania, and Maryland, together with the Governor and Council of New York, met at Albany, and adopted a plan of union, which failed, however, to give satisfaction to the American colonists, or to the English government, because each thought that too much power was given to the other. Had the British ministry intrusted the general assemblies of the united colonies with full power to raise money and to organize armies, they could have destroyed the power of France in the New World without aid from the mother country. But England was too jealous of her growing colonies to permit them to govern and protect their own territory unassisted by her guiding hand.

Effort at union.

Events of 1755.

Four expeditions were fitted out this year; the first against Nova Scotia, the second against Fort Duquesne, the third against Crown Point, and the fourth against Niagara.

The expedition against Nova Scotia, consisting of three thousand militia from New England, and about three hundred

British regulars, was commanded by General Monckton. The principal fort, Beauséjour, was captured, and its name changed to Cumberland. The whole of Nova Scotia fell into the hands of the English; and in order to prevent its French inhabitants from joining the Canadians, they were scattered among the English colonies.

Capture of Nova Scotia.

The expedition against Fort Duquesne was commanded by General Braddock, a brave but haughty and supercilious officer, who scorned the advice of the provincial officers, among whom was George Washington who warned him against the danger of an ambuscade. With a force of two thousand men, Braddock had reached a point within twelve miles of the fort, when he was suddenly surprised by a deadly discharge of musketry from a hidden enemy. Instead of falling back and finding shelter, he rashly pressed forward, exposed to a terrible fire. He had five horses shot under him, and was at last mortally wounded. He lost nearly all his officers, and about half his force. Washington greatly distinguished himself in covering the retreat and saving the remainder of the army from total destruction.

Surprise and defeat of Braddock.

General William Johnson commanded the expedition against Crown Point. Arriving at Lake George, he learned that a force of French and Indians was marching to capture Fort Edward, in order to destroy the provisions and military stores which it contained. Johnson sent out a force under Colonel Williams to save the fort; but he allowed himself to be surprised by Dieskau who lay in ambush. The English were defeated and compelled to beat a hasty retreat. Their commander was slain. The French and Indians then pressed forward to attack the main body; but in the severe conflict which ensued they suffered a signal defeat, losing about eight hundred men. Dieskau was mortally wounded, and fell into the hands of the English. This victory, although barren of results, following so fast upon the defeat of Braddock had great moral influence in inspiring the people to prosecute the war with vigor.

Defeat of the French.

The expedition against Niagara, under the command of Governor Shirley of Massachusetts, proved a complete failure. Delays in preparation caused it to start too late in the season; it was poorly supplied with provisions, and when it reached Oswego it was found impracticable to proceed farther. So, having accomplished literally nothing, it returned to Albany. With the exception of the conquest of Nova Scotia, the first year of the war was rather in favor of the French and their Indian allies.

Niagara.

EVENTS OF 1756.

Although hostilities had continued for nearly two years, war was not formally declared until May, 1756. The King appointed Lord Loudoun Governor of Virginia, and commander in chief of all the forces in America. Not being able to leave England to assume his position, Loudoun sent out General Abercrombie to act as his lieutenant until his arrival. Early in the year a council of the colonial governors was held in Albany, at which it was determined to capture the strong and important positions of Crown Point, Niagara, and Fort Duquesne. But General Abercrombie declared that the force under his command was not large enough for the purpose. Loudoun did not reach America until July. In the meantime, the Marquis of Montcalm, a very able officer, who had been appointed general of the French forces, profiting by these delays, crossed Lake Ontario with a force of five thousand men, including his Indian allies, and thirty pieces of cannon, and laid siege to Fort Ontario on the east bank of the Oswego River, one of the most important positions in America. The garrison, consisting of about fifteen hundred men, after an obstinate resistance, retired safely to the old fort on the west side of the river, where they were

Montcalm.

Capture of Fort Ontario.

finally forced to surrender themselves prisoners of war. Montcalm seized a large quantity of provisions and military stores, destroyed the forts, and recrossed the lake to Canada. Owing to the indecision or imbecility of Loudoun and Abercrombie, the campaign of 1756 was particularly disastrous to the English; for Montcalm's victory gave the French complete command of Lakes Ontario and Erie.

Events of 1757.

In this year the English ministry sent out an expedition for the capture of Louisburg. It consisted of eleven ships of war, fifty transports, and five thousand soldiers. The colonies had raised an army of six thousand men for the reduction of Ticonderoga and Crown Point; but Lord Loudoun, the royal governor, ordered this force to assist in the taking of Louisburg. As usual there were delays; and in the meantime the French reënforced their stronghold by sending out seventeen war vessels, and increasing the garrison until it amounted to nine thousand men. The English expedition was therefore abandoned.

The Marquis of Montcalm, finding that Loudoun had sent the army intended for the north to Halifax, attacked Fort William Henry, on the south shore of Lake George, with an army of nine thousand men, two thousand of whom were Indian allies. The garrison contained only three thousand men, commanded by Colonel Monroe who made a most gallant defense for six days, expecting every moment that General Webb, who was only fifteen miles distant at Fort Edward, would come to his relief. But he would neither go himself, nor permit Sir William Johnson to go with as many men as would volunteer to march to the relief of the fort. The brave Colonel Monroe was forced to surrender; but on account of the courage exhibited by the garrison, they were granted honorable terms of capitulation. As the men were marching out, however, they were plundered and cruelly butchered by Montcalm's savage Indians. This

Surrender of Fort William Henry.

stain on the character of the French commander has never been thoroughly cleared. It is said that he tried to restrain the Indians; and perhaps he is entitled to the benefit of the doubt. Again the weakness and delays of Lord Loudoun brought nothing but disgrace to the British arms.

Events of 1758.

Owing to the repeated disasters to the English forces in America, the ministry was dismissed, and the great Pitt, Earl of Chatham, was placed at the head of affairs. He recalled Lord Loudoun, and assured the colonial governors that he would support them with a numerous army and a powerful navy. He asked them to raise as many troops as possible. New England, in response, collected a force of fifteen thousand men. Three expeditions were fitted out: the first against Louisburg, the key of the St. Lawrence; the second against Ticonderoga, the key of the Lakes; and the third against Fort Duquesne, the key of the western territory, the possession of which was the cause of the war.

General Amherst, with the celebrated General Wolfe second in command, sailed from Halifax with thirty-eight vessels of war and an army of fourteen thousand men, for the purpose of capturing Louisburg. Against this formidable force the French were unable to contend. The garrison of six thousand men surrendered. They lost nine ships of war and one hundred and twenty cannon, besides large quantities of military stores.

Surrender of Louisburg.

The expedition against Ticonderoga was commanded by General Abercrombie, who succeeded Lord Loudoun as general in chief. He started out with an army of sixteen thousand men and a formidable train of artillery. Montcalm, with a garrison of four thousand troops, commanded the fort. The English general plunged blindly into the woods, and, without waiting for his guns, ordered an attack, which of course resulted in disaster. After fighting gallantly for four hours against an army sheltered

Defeat of Abercrombie.

behind their works, and losing two thousand men, among whom was Lord Howe, the second in command, the English were ordered by Abercrombie to withdraw and return to the southern shore of Lake George.

Colonel Bradstreet obtained permission from his incompetent general to attack Fort Frontenac, at the western outlet of Lake Ontario. With three thousand men, he sailed down the lake, and landing within a mile of the fort, made a most brilliant assault, captured the garrison, nine armed vessels and a great amount of cannon and military stores.

General Forbes, at the head of an army of eight thousand men, marched from Philadelphia to reduce Fort Duquesne. However, on arriving at the fort he found it evacuated; and taking possession, he named it Pittsburg, in honor of the English prime minister.

Notwithstanding the defeat of Abercrombie at Ticonderoga, the results of the war this year were on the whole favorable to the English. The valley of the Ohio and the river St. Lawrence were opened; and their possession threatened the French in two important positions.

Events of 1759.

Nothing short of the complete conquest of Canada would satisfy the British ministry under the leadership of William Pitt, Earl of Chatham. The first wise movement made by the government this year was the recall of the inefficient Abercrombie, and the appointment of General Amherst as commander in chief of all the forces in America. The French now held three strongholds: Ticonderoga and Crown Point, which threatened New York and New England; Niagara, which was the connecting link between Canada and the French possessions on the Mississippi; and Quebec, the strongest fortification in North America.

Capture of Ticonderoga and Crown Point.

General Amherst was successful in capturing Ticonderoga and Crown Point, and forcing the French to seek safety in a

strongly fortified place on the northern shore of Lake Champlain. He was unable, however, to pursue them farther, owing to the want of suitable means of transportation.

General Prideaux marched against Niagara, which he immediately invested. But while conducting the siege he was killed by the bursting of a small mortar. He was succeeded in the command by Sir William Johnson, who faithfully carried out all the plans which had been previously agreed upon. After a general battle the fort was captured.

Capture of Niagara.

General Wolfe was appointed to command the most difficult expedition of all — the capture of Quebec. He was chosen for this important post because, in the previous year, at the siege of Louisburg, he had shown military skill of a high order. He sailed from Louisburg with a force of eight thousand men, under convoy of a large fleet of war vessels, and in June landed them on the island of Orleans, a little below the city of Quebec, which was built on a high and almost inaccessible bluff. The lower and business part of the town was below this bluff, and almost on a level with the river. From Point Levi, Wolfe destroyed this place, but could make no impression on the strong defenses built on the heights above.

Wolfe.

Having made several unsuccessful attempts to capture the citadel, he finally conceived the idea of carrying his troops, under cover of darkness, past the fortifications, and landing them at a place toward the west and south less exposed to the fire of the enemy. In spite of many obstacles and dangers, this bold and daring plan was carried out. On the morning of the 13th of September Wolfe had scaled the heights, and placed his army in battle array on the Heights of Abraham, to the utter amazement of Montcalm. Here a severe and bloody

battle was fought, whose fate depended in a great measure on the skill and valor of the leaders. Wolfe, although twice wounded, continued to encourage his men, and refused to quit the field. While leading a charge of his grenadiers, he received a third wound in the breast, which proved mortal. In the agony of death he heard the cry, "They run — they run!" — "Who run?" he asked; and when informed that it was the French, he replied, "Now, God be praised! I die happy." Montcalm was also wounded, and when told that the wound was mortal, said, "Then I shall not live to see the surrender of Quebec."

Capture of Quebec by Wolfe.

Five days after the battle the city surrendered to the English. This important victory gave Great Britain substantial possession of Canada. The war, however, was protracted for another year. The French tried in vain to recover Quebec. Amherst captured Montreal; and Detroit, after withstanding a siege of six months, was taken. The preliminaries of peace were settled in 1762, but it was not until 1763 that the definitive treaty of Paris gave Great Britain complete possession of Nova Scotia, Cape Breton, and Canada.

While the English armies were engaged in the conquest of Canada, Virginia and the Carolinas suffered from the hostilities of the Cherokees. General Amherst sent Colonel Montgomery, in 1760, with a force of more than two thousand men, to protect the southern colonies and to punish the savages. He destroyed their villages and stores of food. The Indians, in retaliation, besieged Fort Loudoun, on the confines of Virginia. The garrison was starved into surrender. The terms of capitulation were violated. Some who surrendered were murdered, and the others were carried away into captivity. Next year Colonel Grant defeated the Cherokees, and so followed up his victory as to compel them to sue for peace.

Subjugation of the Cherokees.

CHAPTER XVI.

CAUSES OF THE AMERICAN REVOLUTION.

"Rebellion! foul, dishonoring word,
Whose wrongful blight so oft has stained
The holiest cause that tongue or sword
Of mortal ever lost or gained."

THE French and Indian War produced two results which exercised a far-reaching influence on the American colonies. First, it created a great war debt, amounting to $725,000,000—a vast sum at that time, which the British ministry resolved the colonists should pay in part by taxation. The specious argument was used that the war had been conducted at great expense for the special benefit of the colonies, to secure them from the incursions of the French and their savage Indian allies, and to give the Americans undisturbed possession of a continent. It was only fair, then, the ministry claimed, that the colonies should pay their share of the expenses of the war. The American colonists perceived the justice of this claim, provided they were represented in Parliament; for taxation and representation were inseparable. But the English government denied representation, and the colonists refused to pay taxes. This vital disagreement was the beginning of the agitation which ended in the establishment of the great republic of the United States.

Taxation and representation.

The second result of the French and Indian War greatly helped to make the Revolutionary War a success to the Americans, for it furnished an admirable training school for Washington and many of his best officers in which to learn the art of war by actual practice. Without this preparation, the acknowledged superiority of the American commander in chief and

most of his native generals over Gage, Howe, Burgoyne, and Clinton, would have been, perhaps, impossible.

In spite of the tyrannical laws restricting commerce and manufactures, and in spite of the arbitrary conduct and maladministration of most of the royal governors, the colonists had remained loyal to the throne and government of England. They had always claimed that country as their home, as the mother country of the great majority of the American people. English was their language; they read the same books; they possessed the same manners; and they practiced the same customs. Indeed, they were allied by a hundred ties and associations to old England. They had stood shoulder to shoulder with Great Britain in four wars. They had spent their blood and treasure to uphold the greatness and glory of the empire. It was, therefore, no slight cause which could impel a people as just, as sober and as reasonable as the American colonists, to rise in rebellion against their sovereign, George III., and his government.

Loyalty of the colonists.

The colonists had submitted to the iniquitous Navigation Act, which crippled their commerce and compelled them to send all their products to England in English ships. Importation and exportation were simply shackled in order to enrich English merchants and manufacturers. Even intercolonial trade was hampered so that Massachusetts and Georgia could not freely exchange commodities. The severity of these laws naturally led to smuggling on a vast scale; and smuggling as naturally led to search warrants, which authorized the King's officers to enter private houses, on suspicion that they contained goods on which duty had not been paid. These searches irritated the people beyond measure. Although the country abounded in timber and iron, the colonists were not allowed to build their own ships or to manufacture their own steel. Almost every article of use or luxury was imported from England. In the meantime, in spite of everything, the colonies had increased in wealth and population. Three millions of people, who had

Smuggling and search warrants.

enriched themselves by thrift and industry, now occupied the Atlantic coast.

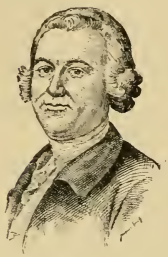
From the time of Edward I. the English people had insisted that Parliament alone had the right to impose taxes; or, in other words, that the King could raise no money without the consent of the representatives whom they had chosen; so that taxation and representation were inseparable. Strong kings may have violated this right of the people, and weak kings may have evaded constitutional principles; but even under the arbitrary rule of the Tudors, Parliament went through the form at least of imposing taxes. The usurpation of the right to raise money without the consent of Parliament cost Charles I. his head. As long as money was raised in America in the form of duties, the colonists had found little fault. They had submitted with the best grace they could. But when an attempt was made to impose a direct tax without representation in Parliament, the people became indignant, and resolved to resist the tyranny of the King and his ministers.

Usurpation of Charles I.

In 1764 the English ministry introduced a bill in Parliament laying a duty on sugar, indigo, coffee, etc., for the purpose of helping to defray the expenses of the late war; but as this duty was an indirect tax, which simply increased the cost of some of the necessaries of life, the people, though discontented, raised no opposition. Next year, however, when Parliament passed the celebrated Stamp Act, which was a direct tax, actually taking money out of pockets of the colonists, and putting it into the King's treasury, their wrath and indignation knew no bounds. By this act they were obliged to place government stamps on all deeds, bonds, notes, etc., in order to make them legal; and for every stamp money had to be paid. It is well to remember that America was not without friends and advocates in Parliament and among the British people. Mr. Wilkes, Colonel Barré, the elder Pitt, and Edmund Burke, as well as many others, became the eloquent champions of American liberty, and pointed out in the strongest terms the

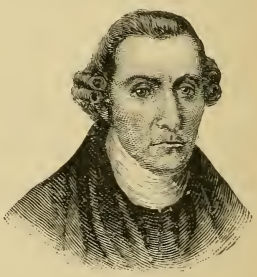
The Stamp Act.

danger to the empire by continuing the present course of tyranny and oppression. But the stubborn King and his foolish ministers refused to listen to advice, or to desist from their arbitrary measures. They seemed unconscious of the fact that the American people would not and could not live as slaves. If the English government could take money out of the pockets of the colonists without their consent, they were no longer freemen.



Otis.

When the news of the passage of the Stamp Act reached America, the colonists were roused to a high pitch of righteous wrath. Public meetings were held, and the speakers denounced the act in no measured terms. Most of the colonial assemblies passed strong resolutions against it. Writers like James Otis of Boston, and orators like Patrick Henry of Virginia, stirred the people to a high state of excitement to oppose it by all means within their power. As usual, the democratic Puritans of Massachusetts took the lead by recommending a Colonial Congress to consult for the general safety. Accordingly, in October, 1765, twenty-eight members met in New York, remonstrated against the Stamp Act, and petitioned for its repeal. They also drew up a bill of rights, in which they proclaimed the great political principle that "taxation and representation are inseparable."



Henry.

Colonial Congress, 1765.

When the act went into effect, on the first day of November, the brave people of Boston began to toll a funeral bell, and the freemen of Portsmouth made a handsome coffin, on which they wrote the simple and significant word,

Liberty. In some places the King's stamp officers were compelled to resign or hide themselves, in order to escape the wrath of an outraged people. To carry out their resistance the more effectually, the colonists resolved to conduct business without the stamps; and the merchants formed associations, agreeing not to import merchandise until the act was repealed. Even the women were determined to deny themselves the comforts and luxuries of life to which they had been long accustomed, rather than sanction the oppressive measures of the King of England.

The opposition to the Stamp Act was so fierce, so bitter, and so general, that the ministers were compelled to do either of two things — each equally unpalatable — to repeal it or enforce it. In their wisdom they repealed it; but in their foolishness the repeal was ungraciously accompanied by a declaration that the right inhered in Parliament to tax all the English colonies. When the good news of the repeal reached America, there was general rejoicing throughout the colonies; business was resumed, and for the moment the danger of rebellion was averted.

Repeal of the Stamp Act.

In the aggressive agitation against the Stamp Act, a powerful organization, known as the *Sons of Liberty*, had been formed. This society exercised great influence on the revolutionary movement by holding in check the many Tories and Royalists scattered over the colonies. It kept alive the fires of freedom, especially in the New England colonies, where opposition to the tyranny of Great Britain was the strongest.

The joy of the people at the repeal of the Stamp Act had scarcely died away when, in 1766, a new tax on glass, papers, painters' colors, and tea, was imposed by Parliament. Other oppressive acts were passed, which simply served to fan the flame of hostility against the King and his ministers. The colonial assemblies adopted resolutions condemning the unwise and unjust treatment of the American people at the hands of the English government.

New tax on the colonists.

Associations were formed to support home manufactures, and to cease the importation of English merchandise.

Again the assembly of Massachusetts took the lead by sending out circulars to the other colonies, urging them to resist oppression, and to use every effort to secure a redress of grievances. The British government was very much incensed at this action, and directed the Governor of Massachusetts to require the assembly to rescind the obnoxious resolution. But it refused to obey such an arbitrary order. Whereupon the Governor dissolved the assembly.

Boston was, at this period, the very center and hotbed of patriotic agitation against the oppressive measures of the mother country; and in order to overawe its citizens, General Gage, the commander in chief of his Majesty's forces in America, was ordered to occupy the town with a garrison of seven hundred men. But the descendants of the Puritans were not the men to be easily frightened by the presence of a few regular soldiers, for whom they refused to provide quarters. The Governor then ordered them to occupy the State House. As might be expected under these circumstances, frequent collisions occurred between the people and the military, in one of which several citizens were killed, and others wounded. These acts served to widen the breach between England and America, and to destroy the hope of many Royalists that a reconciliation might yet be effected.

Boston occupied by militia.

In 1769 both houses of Parliament, in an address to the King, requested him to give the Governor of Massachusetts orders to send those persons guilty of treason to England, to be tried there for their lives. This was tyranny of the most wicked kind. To try a man for his life by a jury of strangers and enemies was a violation of the English Constitution, and a mockery of justice. The royal governors of Massachusetts, Virginia, and North Carolina dissolved the colonial assemblies, and thereafter tried to govern as military despots.

Colonial assemblies dissolved.

In 1770 Lord North became prime minister of England; and one of his first acts was to abolish all the taxes except that on tea. This was a very cunning movement on the part of the premier; for few but the wealthy drank tea in those days, and most of the rich were Royalists, who would not object to threepence a pound on tea. But Lord North could not understand that the Americans cared very little about the amount of taxation. It was not money that they struggled for; it was for a *principle* — the principle that taxation and representation were inseparable. The right to tax the colonies threepence, presupposed the right to tax them indefinitely.

Tax on tea.

In 1773 great quantities of tea were shipped to America by the British East India Company, without first paying duty in England, so that the colonists could obtain their tea cheaper than it could be purchased in the mother country. But this device, crafty as it was, utterly failed to secure its purpose. New York and Philadelphia closed their ports against the tea ships; and in Boston some of the people, disguised as Indians, boarded the ships in the presence of thousands, seized the tea chests, and flung their contents into the harbor. This was the celebrated "*Boston Tea Party.*"

"Boston Tea Party."

Then, in retaliation, Parliament passed the Boston Port Bill, which prohibited the landing and shipping of merchandise at Boston, and made Salem the port of entry. But the latter nobly declined to become rich at the expense of the former. Many of the merchants of Boston were ruined by this iniquitous act, but their spirit of hostility to every form of oppression could not be subdued. They were willing to suffer and, if need be, die in the holy cause of liberty.

In 1774 a Second Colonial or First Continental Congress, consisting of representatives from eleven colonies, met at Philadelphia. Its first act was to commend Massachusetts for her noble stand against tyrants. It formulated a declaration of rights, and it recommended a

First Continental Congress.

suspension of commercial relations with England. It voted an address to the King, to the people of Great Britain and to the Canadian colonists.

In order to meet these aggressive measures, General Gage was made military governor of Massachusetts. He immediately fortified Boston Neck; and seized all the military stores in the arsenals at Cambridge and Charlestown, and had them transferred to Boston. The assembly of Massachusetts formed itself into committees of safety and supplies, and voted to raise a provincial militia to the number of twelve thousand men. Similar preparations, though not to the same extent, were made in the other colonies.

Committees of safety.

Finally the people of Massachusetts were declared rebels; and the British government, for the purpose of subduing them, sent over an army of ten thousand regular soldiers. Thus were brought face to face in deadly conflict a mighty empire possessing vast resources, and thirteen sparsely settled colonies containing about three million of inhabitants, nearly a third of whom were Royalists. But the cause of the colonies was the cause of right and justice, of law and liberty; and, sustained and defended by some of the greatest men the world has ever known, it finally triumphed.

Soldiers in Massachusetts.

92° 90° 88° 86° Longitude 84° West from 82° G
44°
42°
40°
38°
36°
34°
32°
LAKE MICHIGAN
LAKE HURON
LAKE ST. CLAIR
Green B.
Saginaw B.
Detroit
Chicago
Fox R.
Rock River
Kankakee R.
Maumee
Sandusky
TERRITORY WITHIN THE CHARTER LIMITS OF MASSACHUSETTS COLONY
TERRITORY WITHIN THE CHARTER LIMITS OF CONNECTICUT COLO
FRENCH PROVINCE OF LOUISIANA
Illinois River
Kaskaskia R.
Wabash River
St. Louis 1764
Cahokia 1699
Vincennes
Kaskaskia
Ohio River
White River
Ft. Washington
Miami R.
Scioto River
Muskingum River
Marietta 1788
Shawnee Town
Louisville
Ft. McClellan
Lexington 1779
Harrodstown 1774
Kentucky R.
Big Sandy R.
Big Kanawha R.
Ft. Jefferson 1780
Green River
Falls
Cumberland River
Tennessee River
Cumberland Mountains
Clinch R.
Holston R.
Duck River
French Broad R.
Memphis
Cumberland Mountains
Blue Ridge
Catawba R.
Yadkin R.
Tombigbee R.
Pascagoula R.
Coosa River
Tallapoosa R.
Chattahoochee R.
Flint River
Ocmulgee R.
Oconee River
Ogeechee R.
Big Black R.
Pearl River
Alabama R.
Augusta
Ft. Galphin
Savannah
15° W 11° 9° Longitude 7° West from 5°

ARNOLD'S EXPEDITION AGAINST QUEBEC
Quebec
Ft. Levi
Chaudiere R.
Kennebec R.
Moosehead Lake
Norridgewock
Augusta
Gardiner
Portland
ATLANTIC OCEAN
0 50 100 m.
MAP OF BOSTON & Environs
Medford
Mystic R.
Prospect Hill
Bunker Hill
Breeds Hill
Charlestown
Cambridge
Charles R.
BOSTON
Bird Is.
Castle Is.
Roxbury
Dorchester Heights
Dorchester
2 Miles
COLONIES during the REVOLUTIONARY WAR.
By Russell Hinman, C.E.
0 50 100 150 Miles 200
Montreal
Ft. St. Johns
Plattsburg
Burlington
Ft. Frontenac
Ft. Carlton
Crown Point
Ticonderoga
LAKE ONTARIO
Oswego
Ft. Niagara
Ft. Wm. Henry
Ft. Schuyler
Saratoga
Ft. Edward
Bemis Heights
Bennington
Schenectady
Cherry Valley
Ft. Oriskany
Newtown (Elmira)
Presque Isle
Kingston
Newburgh
West Pt.
Stony Pt.
Wyoming
Venango
Pittsburg
Morristown
Jersey City
Brooklyn
Princeton
Trenton
Monmouth
Bordentown
Burlington
Reading
Valley Forge
Germantown
Philadelphia
Camden
Lancaster
York
Ft. Mifflin
Ft. Mercer
Newcastle
Baltimore
Annapolis
Alexandria
Mt. Vernon
C. May
C. Henlopen
Charlottesville
Richmond
Manchester
James R.
Williamsburg
Yorktown
C. Charles
Petersburg
C. Henry
Norfolk
Portsmouth
Roanoke R.
Chowan R.
Albemarle Sd.
Halifax
Guilford C.H.
Hillsboro
Greensboro
Plymouth
Roanoke Is.
Raleigh
Neuse R.
Pamlico Sd.
Cape Hatteras
Cape Fear R.
Newbern
Cape Lookout
Cheraw
Wilmington
Cape Fear
Ft. Motte
Ft. Moultrie
Charleston Harb.
Port Royal
Camden
Saco
Dover
Portsmouth
Salem
Marblehead
Concord
Lexington
Boston
Cape Cod
Providences
Plymouth
Rhode Island
New London
Newport
Nantucket Is.
Narragansett Bay
Long Island Sd.
Long Island
Connecticut R.
Housatonic R.
Susquehanna R.
Delaware R.
Blue Mts.
Kittatinny Mts.
Alleghany Mts.
Monongahela R.
Shenandoah R.
Potomac R.
Rappahannock R.
Appomattox R.
Dan River
Yadkin R.
Pedee R.
Santee R.
Saluda R.
Broad R.
Catawba R.
Wateree R.
Congaree R.
Edisto R.
Ashley R.
Cooper R.
Black R.
Lake Champlain
Hudson R.
Mohawk R.
Oneida Lake
Onondaga Lake
Seneca R.
Genesee R.
Niagara R.
Lake Erie
Lake Ontario
Lake Champlain
Connecticut R.
Merrimack R.
Kennebec R.
Androscoggin R.
Penobscot R.
Saco R.
Piscataqua R.
Presumpscot R.
Androscoggin R.
Kennebec

CHAPTER XVII.

THE REVOLUTIONARY WAR.

"For freedom's battle once begun,
Bequeathed by bleeding sire to son,
Though baffled oft, is ever won."

The First Engagements, 1775.

During the winter of 1774 and 1775, General Gage and the Provincial Assembly prepared for the struggle which now seemed inevitable. The patriots had purchased military stores and placed them in Concord and Worcester. The British commander sent out a detachment of eight hundred soldiers and marines under the command of Colonel Smith, to seize and destroy the guns and ammunition in Concord. The march was made on April 18 by night, in order to hide the movement and to surprise the people before the Committee of Safety could warn them of their danger and prepare them to resist the enemy.

Gage.

The night was clear and frosty. The march was twenty miles northwest of Boston. But the secret could not be kept. Every movement was closely watched by the Americans. Paul Revere made his celebrated midnight ride, arousing the people and warning Hancock and Adams, at Lexington, of the intended attack. Colonel Smith, finding that the Sons of Liberty were informed of all his plans, sent back to Boston for reënforcements. General Gage ordered out the first brigade under Lord Percy; but, owing to blunders and delays, it was obliged to take a circuitous route, and was only

Paul Revere.

able, late in the day, to cover the retreat and save the British troops under Smith from destruction.

Colonel Smith ordered Major Pitcairn, with six companies of light infantry and a body of marines, to take possession of the bridges over the Concord River. He hurried forward his force, and early in the morning reached Lexington Common, where on the green, in front of the meetinghouse, he found the "minutemen" formed in battle array, under the command of John Parker, who had had experience as a soldier in the French and Indian War. Parker, perceiving that the Americans were greatly outnumbered, wisely ordered a retreat. But at this moment Pitcairn rode forward and exclaimed, "Disperse, ye rebels! Disperse!"

Concord and Lexington.

Each side was anxious not to fire the first shot, and which fired it is still a matter of doubt. Probably the war began in this way. There was a flash in the pan of the gun of a "minuteman," which was immediately followed by a murderous discharge of musketry from the infantry, perhaps without orders, by which seven men were killed and ten wounded, out of a total of seventy. The Americans returned the fire and killed and wounded two or three of the English. The British soldiers then pressed forward to Concord, distant eight miles from Lexington. Here they found the whole country aroused. The minutemen for thirty miles around had shouldered their guns and rushed to the assistance of their brethren. Colonel Barrett, seeing that he was unable to cope with so large a force, retreated from Concord and took a position on a hill a short distance behind the town.

Colonel Smith immediately commenced the work he had been sent to do — the destruction of the cannon and military stores. But perceiving that he could not maintain his position in Concord, he ordered a retreat, which proved terribly disastrous. The minutemen knew every rod of ground, every hill and valley, and every house and barn on the road between Concord and Boston, and at every favorable position, from behind stone walls and wooden fences, they kept up a deadly

fire on the British soldiers. Including Lord Percy's reënforcement, the English troops engaged in the battle of Lexington amounted to one thousand seven hundred, of whom sixty-five were killed, one hundred and seventy-eight wounded, and twenty-six missing. The loss on the side of the Americans was ninety. It was only with great difficulty that the British found shelter in the city of Boston, no longer feeling contempt for the "undisciplined Yankees." Thus began the long and bloody war which ended in complete separation from England and in the establishment of American Independence.

Defeat of the British.

As the news of the battle of Lexington was rapidly spread throughout the colonies, the patriots were aroused to a high pitch of enthusiasm. They found that their raw militia could fight the trained soldiers of England. Everywhere all over New England the people sprang to arms. Boston was surrounded on the land side by an army variously estimated at from ten to thirty thousand men; and the sea alone was open to the British. From the moment the defeated troops under Smith and Percy found shelter in the town, the siege of Boston began. Boston Neck was completely commanded by a strong fort on the high land above the Roxbury meetinghouse. General Artemas Ward was the senior officer of the Massachusetts militia; and Spencer of Connecticut, Greene of Rhode Island, and Folsom of New Hampshire readily obeyed his orders, which were issued rather as requests. It was here, in the construction of military defenses, that Henry Knox, a young bookseller of Boston, first distinguished himself. Israel Putnam of Pomfret left his plow in the field, mounted his horse, and rode away to Concord. He placed himself at the head of over two thousand men, and marched them to the defense of Charlestown Neck.

Siege of Boston.

Just as soon as the news of the battle of Lexington had been published in England, the ministry perceived that war had begun in earnest. At the urgent solicitation of General Gage, reënforcements were sent over to America under the

command of three weak generals, Howe, Clinton, and Burgoyne; and when informed, on their arrival, that five thousand regular troops were cooped up in Boston by ten thousand "peasants," as they termed the patriots, they were astonished and mortified. Something must be done, or the honor of the British arms would be forever ruined. Both sides perceived the great importance of occupying Charlestown and Dorchester Heights. General Ward, on the American side, ordered a detachment under Colonel Prescott to take possession of the hill above Charlestown, and to provide themselves with packs, blankets, intrenching tools, and provisions for twenty-four hours.

On the evening of the 16th of June, the expedition crossed Charlestown Neck and took a position on Bunker Hill. A council of war was held to consider whether it was wiser to fortify this hill, or Breeds Hill farther to the south; and it was decided, after much deliberation, that it was better to fortify the latter, as it commanded the British fleet. Military critics have since pronounced the fortifying of Breeds Hill a mistake. When the decision was reached, Colonel Gridley, a veteran of the French and Indian War, threw up a redoubt eight rods square, between midnight and morning; and then sent his intrenching implements to Putnam, to enable him to throw up earth works at Bunker Hill.

Battle of Bunker Hill.

The British, on discovering the redoubt, opened a severe fire on it from their ships, their floating batteries, and from Copps Hill; but with very little damage, only one man being killed. It was evident to the English officers that unless the Americans were driven from this strong position, they could no longer remain in Boston. General Gage therefore formed two columns, amounting together to three thousand soldiers, under the command of Generals Howe and Pigot, and ordered them to cross the Charles River and dislodge the Americans. As they advanced to the attack, they discharged their muskets at too great a distance; but the patriots reserved their fire until the enemy was quite near them, and then it was terrible, mowing down their ranks by hundreds. The British were forced to

retreat in confusion. Their officers rallied them at the foot of the hill, even urging them forward at the point of their swords, and bravely led them to a second attack. This time the Americans allowed them to approach closer than before; and then the fire was so deadly that the British fled a second time in terror down the hill. Unfortunately, however, the ammunition of the Americans was exhausted. And at this moment General Clinton arrived on the field with reënforcements, and the British were rallied to make a third attack, which was successful. The Americans retreated slowly across Charlestown Neck, clubbing their muskets, and fighting hand to hand against the English bayonets, and exposed to a galling cannonade from the enemy's war ships. The patriots quickly threw up earthworks on Prospect Hill, which still commanded the entrance to Boston.

The British accomplished their object. They captured Bunker Hill but at a fearful cost. Their loss was over a third of their whole force engaged in the battle, or a little more than a thousand men. The American loss was less than half that number out of a total of fifteen hundred men who fought under Prescott and Putnam. Among the killed were Dr. Warren, the distinguished patriot, and Major Pitcairn, who began the war. While the battle was raging, General Gage was guilty of a wanton act of cruelty in ordering the burning of Charlestown, which deprived two thousand people of their homes, and caused the destruction of $600,000 worth of property.

Nominal victory for the British.

After the battle of Lexington the majority of the American people became convinced that peace was impossible, and that the sword alone could end the dispute between Great Britain and her American colonies. The protracted agitation, extending over a period of ten years, had only embittered and exasperated the oppressor and the oppressed. George III. and his ministers were determined to crush out all opposition by main force; and the Continental Congress was equally resolved to resist and to fight and die, if need be, for liberty.

The Second Continental Congress met, May 10, at Philadelphia, and addressed the King and people of Great Britain and Ireland, showing the wrongs which the colonies had suffered, and giving to the world their reasons for an appeal to arms. They voted to raise an army of twenty thousand men, and elected a member of their body, *George Washington* of Virginia, commander in chief of all the forces raised, or about to be raised, for the maintenance of American liberty. At the same time they appointed Artemas Ward of Massachusetts his first major general. They also appointed several other generals, to represent, as far as possible, the several colonies. Two Englishmen, Charles Lee and Horatio Gates, were elected to high offices in the American army, on account of their supposed military talents. This was the only mistake made by a body of men remarkable for their ability, wisdom, and integrity; for both these generals were afflicted with inordinate vanity, conceit, and pomposity, and afterwards greatly injured the cause they were chosen to serve.

Second Continental Congress.

The selection of Washington, however, amply compensated for any mistakes that Congress may have made. He was now in the forty-fourth year of his age, in the prime of his faculties, a soldier trained in the French and Indian War, familiar with civil as well as military affairs, and of a courage and tenacity of purpose only equaled by his modesty and fortitude. It would seem as if Providence had specially preserved and fitted him to be the liberator of a brave people and the founder of a great republic. In accepting the exalted office which had been urged upon him, and by none more strenuously than by the delegates from Massachusetts, the colony in which the war had already begun, he said, "I beg it may be remembered by every gentleman in the room, that I this day declare, with the utmost sincerity, I do not consider myself equal to the command I am honored with." He declined all salary for his services, and simply asked Congress to pay his expenses. A resolution was adopted in which Congress declared that the

people would maintain and assist him, and adhere to him with their lives and fortunes in the cause of American liberty.

On the 2d of July, Washington reached Cambridge, and was received with acclamations of joy. He found the American army, consisting of about sixteen thousand men, stretched from Roxbury to the Mystic River, a distance of twelve miles. General Ward was placed in command of the right wing, and General Lee of the left; Washington took command of the center. The commander in chief had a most difficult task to perform. His troops were untrained militia, unaccustomed to subordination, almost devoid of tents and ammunition, and without regular supplies of provisions. But by his skill and energy he quickly introduced organization and discipline, so that he was soon enabled to carry on a regular and formal siege of Boston. His next step was to ascertain the strength of the enemy, which he thought amounted to eleven thousand five hundred men, including sailors and marines. Washington found the greatest difficulty in obtaining gunpowder; and had the British made an assault during the winter, before supplies had been secured, the result would have been most disastrous to the Americans. The heavy loss sustained at Bunker Hill made the British exceedingly cautious about forcing a battle. The English ministry was so dissatisfied with General Gage, that he was recalled, and Sir William Howe was appointed to the chief command.

Washington at Boston.

Gen. Gage superseded by Sir Wm. Howe.

The battle of Lexington proved to the American people that the war was likely to be continued indefinitely. It was therefore necessary that the important fortresses at the south of Lake Champlain, Ticonderoga and Crown Point, should be in the hands of the Americans, in order to prevent an invasion of New York by way of Lake Champlain and the Hudson River, which would separate the Middle from the New England States. Colonels Ethan Allen and Benedict Arnold, with volunteers from Connecticut and Vermont (the latter the famous "Green

Capture of Ticonderoga and Crown Point.

Mountain Boys"), marched against Ticonderoga, and on the 10th of May took it by surprise. They found the garrison asleep; and when the commander, Captain Delaplace, awoke, he appeared half-dressed, and demanded to know by whose authority he was to surrender the fortress. Allen replied, "*In the name of the great Jehovah and the Continental Congress.*" About the same time Colonel Seth Warner captured Crown Point. In the two forts the Americans captured two hundred and twenty pieces of cannon, besides a large quantity of ammunition and military stores.

Invasion of Canada.

Congress, learning that General Carleton, governor of Canada, was making preparations to retake Ticonderoga and Crown Point, was determined not only to secure these forts, but to test the loyalty of the Canadians to the British crown, and to make them, if possible, allies in the struggle for freedom. It was understood that the common people sympathized with the Americans, while the upper class adhered to their oppressor. General Philip Schuyler was ordered to repair without delay to Ticonderoga, and, if he found it practicable, to take possession of St. Johns and Montreal. Having collected twelve hundred men, he sailed down Lake Champlain, and landed at St. Johns, but found it advisable to retire to Isle aux Noix. Here Schuyler was taken sick, and the command devolved on General Richard Montgomery, the officer next in rank, who after a few weeks' siege captured St. Johns on the 3d of November. He then proceeded to invest Montreal; and planting batteries on both sides of the St. Lawrence, cut off all communications with Quebec. Governor Carleton, distrusting the loyalty of the people, fled with his little garrison; and on the 13th of November Montreal fell into the hands of the Americans.

Montgomery captures St. Johns.

Montgomery then moved rapidly against Quebec. In the meantime Arnold had been sent from Cambridge by Washington with one thousand men, by way of Maine, to invade Canada. He forced a passage up the Kennebec, traversed dense

forests, crossed rugged mountains, and penetrated through dismal swamps, losing in the march, by hardships and sickness, half his little army. Having reached the St. Lawrence, he ascended the Heights of Abraham (where Wolfe had gained his famous victory), and tried to force a battle; but the English general, fearing the fate of Montcalm, preferred to remain behind his fortifications. Carleton arriving from Montreal with reënforcements, Arnold was obliged to withdraw and await the arrival of Montgomery. Montgomery joined him on the 1st of December, and assumed the command of the combined force, amounting to three thousand men. The formal siege of Quebec was commenced; but the artillery of the Americans could make little impression on a fortress so strong and so admirably situated for defense. Finally it was determined to carry the town by storm. One column, led by Arnold, was to advance against the lower town, and another column, led by Montgomery, was to scale the rocky heights and attack the upper town. On the 31st of December, a dark and stormy night, the combined attack was made. At first the assault promised success; but the death of the brave Montgomery, who was shot at the head of his troops while urging them forward with the words, "*Push on, brave boys! Quebec is ours*," discouraged his troops, who fell back in confusion. Arnold was wounded, and the command devolved on Morgan, who actually scaled the walls, and would have captured the fortress had he been properly supported. Arnold then retired about three miles from Quebec, where he awaited reënforcements; but none arriving, he was compelled to abandon the siege.

Failure at Quebec.

Post after post was retaken by the English, and shortly the whole of Canada was relinquished. Perhaps this defeat was just as well for the cause of liberty; for the attempt to hold the vast territory watered by the St. Lawrence would undoubtedly have weakened the American army at points where soldiers were most needed.

Canada abandoned by the Americans.

In the contest for freedom, Virginia, the home of the Cavalier, rivaled Massachusetts, the home of the Puritan; and in the agitation which preceded the outbreak of hostilities, the oldest of the thirteen colonies had not been slow, under the leadership of men like Patrick Henry, in taking measures for defense. The Virginians had collected arms and ammunition, and stored them in a magazine for future use, if necessary.

The last of the royal governors.

This aroused the suspicion of Lord Dunmore, the royal governor, who proceeded to remove these military stores. The patriots naturally resented the seizure of their property, and gave vent to their feelings in such expressions as caused the governor to take refuge on board a man-of-war, from which position of safety he issued harmless proclamations, instituting martial law, and proffering freedom to such slaves as would leave their masters.

He then equipped a number of armed vessels; and when the people refused to sell him provisions, he wantonly burned the town of Norfolk, causing a great destruction of property, and depriving six thousand persons of their habitations. Shortly afterwards his lordship sailed away to England, followed by the royal governors of North and South Carolina.

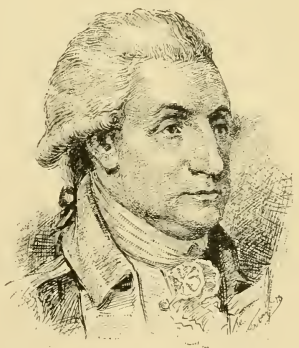
CHAPTER XVIII.

THE REVOLUTIONARY WAR — Continued.

"Where may the wearied eye repose
When gazing on the great?
Where neither guilty glory glows,
Nor despicable state?
Yes one, the first, the last, the best,
The Cincinnatus of the West,
Whom envy dared not hate,
Bequeathed the name of Washington
To make men blush there was but one."

Events of 1776.

It is difficult to state with any degree of accuracy the exact strength of the army with which Washington invested Boston. Owing to leaves of absence and the expiration of terms of enlistment, it was doubtless a varying quantity, at one time as high as twenty thousand men, and again as low as nine thousand. Congress was very anxious that Boston should be captured, in order to release the army there so that it might be transferred to points where it was needed. In the beginning of February, by strenuous efforts, the American army was raised to fourteen thousand effective soldiers.



Washington.

Washington was often blamed by members of Congress, and even by military officers of high rank, for his most useful characteristic — caution. These critics forgot that he had only

untrained militia with which to oppose the veteran troops of England. Prudence was indispensable. A defeat before Boston would have ruined the cause. And yet he was not deficient in dash where dash was necessary, as was subsequently proved at Trenton and Princeton; and even at the council of war which he called in the beginning of March, 1776, he showed the aggressive instinct of the soldier in recommending a direct assault on the town. But it was the general opinion of his officers that it was too dangerous.

Washington's caution.

It was agreed, however, that they would seize and fortify Dorchester Heights, which would command both the entire city and the men-of-war in the harbor. To effect this purpose, a covering party of eight hundred men, followed by a working party of twelve hundred with intrenching tools, on the night of the 4th of March took possession of the Heights unobserved by the enemy. The Americans with great vigor constructed fortifications which completely protected them from the fire of the British. In the morning when the enemy perceived these works they were very much astonished, and saw very clearly that unless they were dislodged Boston must be abandoned. An attempt was made to capture the Heights, but a furious storm caused the harbor to be impassable; and the delay which ensued was fatal to the enterprise. For Washington so extended and strengthened the works as to make an attack useless, if not disastrous.

Dorchester Heights.

Howe saw that the evacuation of Boston was inevitable; and accordingly, on Sunday, the 17th of March, under an informal agreement, by which the Americans were not to fire upon the British, and the British were not to set fire to the town, Howe sailed away to Halifax with seven thousand soldiers and a great number of Tories who preferred English tyranny to American freedom. As the rear guard of the British marched out of Boston, the advance guard of the Americans entered it,

Evacuation of Boston.

amid the beating of drums, the waving of colors, and loud acclamations of joy. Never again did the English gain a foothold in New England; they were expelled, and expelled forever.

Howe.

South Carolina, as well as Virginia, stood shoulder to shoulder with Massachusetts in the struggle for freedom. The State had organized three regiments, two on the Continental plan, and one as a body of rangers. General Charles Lee was in command, with headquarters in Charleston. Colonel Moultrie had fortified Sullivans Island, mainly with palmetto wood. Colonel Gadsden held James Island, which was really a part of the mainland.

Howe, after his evacuation of Boston, had sailed to Halifax with his seven thousand soldiers. He was determined, however, that they should not be idle; so he organized an expedition against the South, and Charleston was the point of attack. On the 28th of June, Sir Henry Clinton and Admiral Parker appeared in Charleston Harbor with a powerful armament, consisting of two fifty-gun ships and five frigates of twenty-eight guns each. The British troops landed on Long Island, which was north of Sullivans Island; but they could effect nothing, owing to the deadly fire of Thompson's rangers. The men-of-war opened a terrific fire on the fort; but the cannon balls simply buried themselves in the soft, spongy wood, without sending off splinters, and therefore did little damage to the brave garrison. At the same time Colonel Moultrie's guns were so well served that they swept the decks of the men-of-war, killing and wounding a great number of the men and officers. Some of

Attack on Charleston.

the ships were very much injured, and one of them was set on fire and abandoned.

At one time, during the heat of the conflict, the flag of the fort was shot down, and fell into the ditch, and there was danger that the other defenders of Charleston would think that Colonel Moultrie had surrendered. Immediately a young sergeant named William Jasper leaped over the parapet, amid a shower of shot and shell, and replaced on the bastion the blue banner bearing the word *Liberty*.

British defeat at Charleston.

The Americans gained a splendid victory. Clinton and Parker sailed to New York; and the South was saved from invasion for two years.

For over a year the American patriots had waged war as "traitors" and "rebels" against the King of Great Britain; and had Washington or any of his officers been captured, they were liable, according to the laws of England, to be "hanged, drawn, and quartered." In the beginning of the struggle it was thought by many that George III. and his ministers would ultimately yield, and grant the American people their just rights; but as the war continued, some of those who dreaded separation either returned to England or removed to New Brunswick or Nova Scotia. Those who remained, or could not leave, became either malignant Tories or ardent patriots. Gradually the question of independence was discussed in the press and by pamphlet by all classes, in town meetings and State assemblies. It was clearly proved that independence would secure for Washington and his army belligerent rights under the laws of civilized warfare, as well as the aid and support of foreign nations.

Independence discussed.

While Colonel Moultrie was defeating Clinton and Parker in Charleston Harbor, the Continental Congress was in session at Philadelphia. Many of its bravest and wisest members saw that the time was ripe for severing all connection with the crown and government of Great Britain. The people were now prepared for complete separation. On the 7th of June, Richard Henry Lee of Virginia made a motion to declare

America free and independent, and in support of it he delivered an able and eloquent oration, in which he uttered these memorable words: "Why then do we longer delay; why still deliberate? Let this most happy day give birth to the American Republic." But delay was necessary. The deputies from Maryland and Pennsylvania were absent, and Congress desired time to mature their plans. Hence the consideration of Lee's motion was postponed until the 1st of July. In the meantime, a committee, consisting of Thomas Jefferson, John Adams, Benjamin Franklin, Roger Sherman, and R. R. Livingston, was appointed to prepare the *Declaration*. At the same time two other committees were appointed, one on *The formation of foreign alliances*, and the other on *A plan of confederation*.

Richard Henry Lee.

During the interval between June 7 and July 2, the great question of independence was exhaustively discussed. Some of the deputies from the middle and southern colonies were not yet convinced of the wisdom or necessity for separation, — for breaking the tie that bound them to the mother country. Finally, on July 2, 1776, the real Declaration of Independence was adopted in these words: "That these United Colonies are, and of right ought to be, free and independent States; that they are absolved from all allegiance to the British Crown; and that all political connection between them and the State of Great Britain is, and ought to be, totally dissolved." The Declaration of Independence, with the reasons therefor, as now annually commemorated, was written by Thomas Jefferson, and adopted on the 4th of July, every member of Congress voting for it. And well they might, for it is the greatest state paper that ever emanated from the mind of man.

Declaration of Independence.

The stubborn King of Great Britain was determined, at any cost of men or money, to compel the American colonies to submit to his authority. He made great efforts to raise an army of forty thousand men, and to equip a fleet, manned by over twenty thousand seamen, for the purpose of completely subju-

gating the American patriots. He drew upon his garrisons in the West Indies, Ireland, and Gibraltar; but even after calling over his Hanoverians he could raise only twenty-three thousand to recruit the army in America. He purchased troops from the German princes of Hesse-Cassel, Brunswick, Hanau, and from others, at so much a head, and incorporated them with his army. These soldiers were all known during the war as "Hessians."

The hiring of Hessians.

Having lost Boston, and failed to take Charleston, the city of New York became of vital importance to the British. Its position between New England and the South, situated on an island, with two navigable rivers, one east and the other west, and a magnificent harbor to the south, rendered it of great value as a center from which to strike in any direction; and once in possession of the English, the British fleet could always prevent its capture by the Americans. Besides, nearly half the inhabitants were friendly Tories.

General Charles Lee, in command at New York, although he had expressed the opinion that the town could not be held, proceeded to erect fortifications at the Battery, and on Brooklyn Heights. But before his works were completed he was transferred to the South, and Alexander Lord Stirling was appointed in his place.

After the evacuation of Boston, Washington foresaw that the next movement of the enemy would be against New York. Consequently he hurried twenty-two regiments to what he believed would be the new theater of war. These troops formed five divisions, under their respective commanders, Putnam, Heath, Sullivan, Spencer, and Greene, the first named being general in chief until the arrival of Washington. Putnam seized and fortified Governors Island, Red Hook on Long Island, and Paulus Hook on the Jersey side of the Hudson. In order to prevent the passage of British men-of-war up the East River, he sank hulks between Governors Island and the Battery. A strong fort was erected on the palisades called

Putnam fortifies New York.

Fort Lee, and another on Washington Heights on the New York side called Fort Washington, for the purpose of preventing the British vessels from passing up the Hudson. Eighty pieces of cannon and mortars were mounted, bearing on the bay and the two rivers. The town, in fact, was turned into an intrenched camp.

As Washington had foreseen, the enemy arrived during the last days of June. General Sir William Howe came from Halifax with the troops he had taken from Boston in advance of his main army. His brother, Admiral Lord Howe, followed with one hundred and thirty ships, containing the Hessians and other reënforcements. Clinton also arrived from Charleston. The entire army of invasion numbered thirty-two thousand men, twenty-five thousand of whom were fit for duty. Washington's whole force was about nineteen thousand, but most of them were poorly armed and equipped, and lacked organization and discipline. Clinton was second in command of the British, and Earl Percy third.

England's powerful armament.

While preparations were being made for this important battle — a battle which the British hoped would crush the Americans and end the contest — Admiral Howe, acting under instructions from the English ministry, endeavored to open negotiations for peace. He sent a letter addressed to George Washington, *Esq.* But it was returned by the general's aid-de-camp, with the statement that he knew no such person as George Washington, *Esq.* A second letter was sent, addressed to His Excellency, General Washington. But the negotiations resulted in nothing; for the admiral had only power to offer "pardon" to such "rebels" as would lay down their arms and return to their homes, and Washington declined all negotiations that did not first acknowledge the independence of the United States of America.

The British open negotiations.

On August 22, Howe transferred his army from Staten Island to Long Island, and occupied the villages of Gravesend,

Utrecht, Flatlands, and Flatbush. The battle, however, was not commenced until the morning of August 27, when General Grant's column made an attack on the Americans, drove in their pickets, and captured a few prisoners. He then formed his lines on the present site of Greenwood Cemetery, and assaulted the troops under Lord Stirling three times, and three times they were repulsed. In the meantime, Howe executed a flank movement to the right; and, guided by Tories, made a night march toward New Lots. Before daylight the next morning he had reached the village of New Bedford, within four miles of the American army. The failure of Putnam to defend the Jamaica pass was fatal. That portion of the army under Sullivan fought bravely, and was beaten badly. Sullivan was taken prisoner.

Battle of Long Island.

The Hessians stationed at Flatbush, hearing Howe's fire on the left, marched rapidly against the broken columns, and completely put them to rout. Lord Stirling still held his ground in spite of all Grant's efforts with his superior numbers to dislodge him. But hearing the noise of battle behind him, and receiving no orders, he fell back along the Gowanus road, which was in possession of the British under Cornwallis. Determined to force his passage across the marsh, Stirling, with a small part of his force, repeatedly charged the enemy; but being greatly outnumbered he was compelled to surrender. By two o'clock in the afternoon, the battle was ended. The American loss was about twelve hundred, that of the British about a third of that number.

Defeat of the Americans.

Had General Greene not been lying sick of fever in New York, the battle of Long Island would have had a different ending, for he would never have permitted the British to attack him in the rear. While the battle was raging, Washington crossed over to Brooklyn, and did all in his power to repair the disaster to his army. He sent to New York for more troops; and on August 28, he found that he had nearly ten thousand soldiers intrenched on the Brooklyn side of the river. Op-

posed to them were eighteen thousand veteran troops, flushed with victory and equipped with all the appliances of war; behind them the East River. Destruction seemed inevitable. Fortunately, on the 28th and 29th it rained incessantly; so that with the exception of some light skirmishing there was a lull in the storm of battle. A council of war was called by Washington, at which it was determined to retreat from Long Island.

It is in times of defeat and disaster that the great general proves his ability. At no other time in his wonderful career did Washington manifest greater qualities as a commander than he did in this retreat from Brooklyn. In the face of a superior army, supported by a powerful navy, he transported ten thousand men across the East River in such frail boats as he could pick up on Manhattan Island. True, the two days' rain and the subsequent fog that covered Long Island, and the change of wind to the southwest, enabled him to form his plans and hide his movements; but it is always the skillful general who makes the best use of his opportunities.

Washington's masterly retreat.

It was most providential that the British ministry sent out a succession of most incompetent generals to put down the so-called American rebellion. Gage was weak and vacillating; Howe was indolent and over-confident. Had the latter followed up his victory on Long Island with vigor and celerity, he could undoubtedly have captured or destroyed that portion of the American army cowering on the heights above the East River. He allowed two days, however, to pass in comparative inaction; and the delay enabled Washington to conduct one of the most masterly retreats on record.

Although the army reached New York in safety, it was evident that the Americans could not hold it. If they must retreat, the question arose whether it would not be better to burn the town. Congress advised against its destruction, because it might be of future use. The same question was considered by the British general; but he, too, thought it better

to spare it, and for precisely the same reason — its use in the future. In spite of the desire on both sides to preserve New York, a great fire destroyed about five hundred houses, and did an immense amount of damage. Whether this was an accident or the work of an incendiary was never clearly ascertained.

Howe spread his troops on Long Island along the East River from Brooklyn to Astoria, and sent a considerable force into Westchester County. He also ordered the men-of-war to occupy both rivers, evidently with the intention of cooping up the American army on Manhattan Island, and by means of his vastly superior force compelling it to surrender, or to fight at a disadvantage. Washington took up a strong position on Washington Heights, at the upper end of the island; fortified Forts Washington and Lee; placed batteries along the East River to prevent the British from landing, and called in his troops from the lower part of the town. While holding this position he fought a successful skirmish, partly for the purpose of inspiring his troops with confidence. Becoming acquainted by means of his spies with Howe's movements and plans, Washington marched his army into Westchester, and fought, on Oct. 28, the indecisive battle of White Plains. He soon perceived that the intention of the British general was to capture Philadelphia. Hence Washington was compelled to cross the Hudson, and place his army between that city and the enemy. In pursuing this course he advised the abandonment of Fort Washington; but Congress very unwisely insisted that it should be held. The fort shortly afterwards surrendered, and three thousand prisoners fell into the hands of the English. The surrender of Fort Lee soon followed.

Battle of White Plains.

The condition of the American army at this time was most deplorable — discouraged by a series of defeats, poorly fed, insufficiently clothed, oftentimes without shoes, their pay in arrears, and no money to be had. Some deserted, some went over to the enemy; the terms of enlistment of some had

expired, and they were anxious to go home. Many members of Congress had lost faith in Washington as a commander. General Charles Lee was insubordinate; but fortunately he was captured by the enemy. General Horatio Gates was seeking a separate and independent command. Both these conceited generals had underrated and belied their general in chief. This was the darkest, the gloomiest hour of the Revolutionary War. All seemed lost. The Tories were triumphant, and many of the Whigs made their peace with the Crown.

Washington's difficulties.

The British generals were so sure that the "rebellion" was crushed that they became indolent and careless. Cornwallis was so certain that the war was ended that he obtained permission to return to England. But in this dark and terrible hour the great soul of Washington remained undaunted and undismayed. With his ragged rabble of an army, now reduced to three or four thousand men, he retreated across the Delaware, vigilantly observing every movement of the enemy. The vices and crimes of the British soldiers and officers and their Hessian hirelings in New Jersey were simply horrible. Every species of crime — murder, arson, rapine — was of daily, hourly, occurrence; and the American general was powerless to prevent it. Patiently watching his opportunity, Washington was resolved to strike a blow which would revive the hopes of the patriots and bring recruits to his standard.

Learning that General Rahl, who occupied Trenton with twelve hundred Hessians, was so confident that he declined to construct a single work of defense, or even to claim support from any other portion of the army, Washington formed the bold design of crossing the Delaware on Christmas night in two places, one above and the other below Trenton, of surrounding and capturing the Hessians before morning, and then retreating across the river with his prisoners.

The troops sent below Trenton failed to cross the river, owing to the great quantities of broken ice on the Jersey side. This misfortune greatly injured the chances of success.

Nevertheless, Washington was determined to run the risk, push forward alone, and strike the enemy a sudden blow. He took with him his ablest and bravest officers, and first among them, the loyal and indomitable Greene, and two thousand four hundred of his best and most reliable soldiers, men who had seen service in one or more campaigns. The floating ice on the Delaware and a storm of snow and sleet so delayed the movement that it was four o'clock before the troops and guns were safe on the Jersey side. Washington divided his little army into two columns, one led by Greene, and the other by Sullivan, he himself remaining with the former.

Washington crosses the Delaware.

It was eight o'clock on Dec. 26 before the attack was made; but notwithstanding the lateness of the hour, the Hessians were completely surprised. The officers had been celebrating Christmas the evening before, doubtless with deep potations, and consequently they were both sleepy and stupid. At all events, when Rahl was awakened, he was not in a fit condition to command his men. After a weak attempt to form in order of battle, the veteran Hessians fled like raw recruits; but they were met by Sullivan's troops, who compelled them to surrender. Rahl was mortally wounded, and gave up his sword to Washington. Nearly a thousand prisoners, six guns, many muskets, and other trophies fell into the hands of the Americans, who lost but two men killed and four wounded in this brilliant exploit. Washington recrossed the Delaware in safety. As the commander in chief had foreseen, this victory revived the hopes of the patriots, inspired the despondent with confidence, and brought recruits to his army, which was soon increased to six thousand men. With this force he crossed the Delaware, and took up his position at Trenton.

Battle of Trenton.

Cornwallis returned from New York, resolved to wipe out the disgrace of Rahl's defeat. Collecting all his available troops, he found himself at the head of an army of seven thousand men. At this juncture Washington's position was most critical. He

dared not fight a superior force. To cross to the Pennsylvania side of the Delaware in the face of the enemy was impossible. To cut his way toward the north meant destruction. There was but one course open to him, and that was boldly to remain in New Jersey and assume the offensive. At a council of war all the generals agreed that it was best to make a night march and capture Princeton. Accordingly, on the morning of the 3d of January, after a short but sanguinary struggle, the town was taken; and Cornwallis found the position of the hostile armies reversed, and himself completely outgeneraled.[1] These skillful maneuvers once more saved the cause of liberty and independence from destruction. Washington retired in safety to Morristown Heights, and went into winter quarters.

Capture of Princeton.

[1] It is said that Washington was once asked what he would have done had he been beaten at Trenton and Princeton. He replied, "I would have retreated across the Alleghanies even with but fifty followers, and preserved the independence of my country while I had life."

CHAPTER XIX.

THE REVOLUTIONARY WAR — Continued.

"Strike for your altars and your fires;
Strike for the green graves of your sires,
God and your native land!"

Events of 1777.

During the winter and spring of 1777, from his strong position at Morristown, Washington closely watched the enemy's movements, and frustrated every attempt on the part of Howe to bring on a general engagement. There were frequent skirmishes between foraging parties, in which the British were generally routed; but there was nothing that had a general bearing on the war. Governor Tryon made a raid into Connecticut, and destroyed some stores and burnt some houses. This was offset by an attack on Sag Harbor by Colonel Meigs, in which he captured the Tory guards, burnt twelve brigs and sloops, and destroyed large quantities of hay and grain.

As the British could only recruit their armies by transporting men three thousand miles across the Atlantic, subject as they were to disease and death during the long and tedious voyage, Washington perceived the great advantage of attacking the enemy in detail, as at Trenton and Princeton, cutting off convoys, and harassing them in every possible way, without coming to a pitched battle. He was convinced that delay was profound policy; and so he lingered on the hillsides of Morristown, where Howe dared not attack him. For the patience and wisdom which he evinced in his military movements, Washington earned the title of the American Fabius. Just as the Roman had baffled the Carthaginian two thousand years ago, the American baffled the Englishman.

Washington at Morristown.

The cruel treatment that American prisoners received at the hands of British officers covered Howe's name with indelible disgrace. They were huddled together between the decks of filthy ships; they were beaten on the slightest provocation; they were abused in the most shameful manner; they were starved, often left for several days without food; and some were hanged without even the form of a trial. Death from disease, under such circumstances, was, of course, of hourly occurrence; and yet the dying were refused the consolations of religion. Howe, with a cunning which he had never evinced in battle, requested Washington to exchange the healthy, well-fed British prisoners for the sickly and dying Americans. But the latter respectfully declined until the exchange could be a fair one as regarded fitness for military duty. At the same time he reproached the British for their wanton cruelty. Thus Howe's wickedness reacted on himself.

Cruelty of Sir William Howe.

Howe found it too dangerous to attack Philadelphia by land, and hence he resolved to take it by sea. Abandoning New Brunswick, which had been his headquarters during the winter, and collecting all his forces on Staten Island, he shipped an army of eighteen thousand men on board his brother's war vessels and transports at Sandy Hook, and landed them, August 4, at the head of the Elk River in Maryland. Washington had only a poorly equipped force of eleven thousand troops with which to contest Howe's march on Philadelphia. The British general took up a strong position on the left bank of the Brandywine, and seized the fords of the river, the chief of which was Chads Ford, where a severe battle was fought September 11, in which the Americans were defeated, with a loss of nearly one thousand men in killed, wounded, and prisoners. On the 19th, General Wayne intended to surprise a part of the British army at Paoli; but some Tories having given Howe timely warning, the Americans were themselves surprised, and suffered a severe loss. This action is known as the "Paoli Massacre."

Battle of Chads Ford or Brandywine.

On the 26th of September Howe marched into Philadelphia, and was received with great joy by the Tory inhabitants Congress had fled to Lancaster for safety. Howe placed his army in winter quarters at Germantown. Washington, learning that a portion of the British force was attacking the forts on the Delaware, and still undismayed by recent reverses, was determined to hazard another battle, in order, if possible, to compel the enemy to evacuate the chief city of the United States. He formed, October 4, an excellent plan of attack; and everything at first promised a splendid victory. The English fled; but some of them took refuge in a storehouse, which they converted into a fort, and fired on the Americans. Unfortunately the latter wasted valuable time in attempting to dislodge them. In the meantime a fog arose, which caused the patriots to fall into confusion. Washington deemed it wise to order a retreat, having suffered a loss of about twelve hundred men. After this action Washington retired with his army, which was worn and wearied with long and arduous service, to winter quarters at Valley Forge, about twenty miles from Philadelphia.

Howe's capture of Philadelphia.

Battle of Germantown.

Burgoyne.

Fortunately for the cause of American Independence, the general selected by the British Ministry for the invasion of New York was even more incompetent than either Clinton or Howe. Burgoyne had served in a subordinate capacity at Bunker Hill, and had manifested no higher quality than common courage. Yet this was the man chosen to lead the army from Canada — to deal the "rebellion" its death blow. He had boasted, it is said, that with seven thousand men he would be able to cut his way to Georgia. He had col-

lected at St. Johns, at the mouth of the St. Johns River, a force of nearly eight thousand troops, composed half of regulars and half of Hessians and Canadians. He had, in addition, by King George's consent, a body of merciless Indians under his command. He had a formidable train of artillery. His subordinate officers were especially able. He had a fleet, consisting of nine vessels, carrying one hundred and forty-three guns. His first objective point was Albany, whence he could form a junction with Howe, thus separating the New England from the Middle States, and, with the aid of the Tories, conquer all the country south of New York. The plan of campaign was excellent but for one little defect. Burgoyne had received orders to join Howe; but Howe, through oversight on the part of the British minister, had received no positive orders to join Burgoyne. This omission was fatal to the enterprise. Washington not only held Howe in check at and near Philadelphia, but actually sent reënforcements to the threatened north from his own depleted army; thus materially assisting Gates to gain the glory he so little deserved.

Burgoyne's armament.

On the 16th of June, Burgoyne started on his memorable expedition, and immediately established a magazine of supplies at Crown Point. His first point of attack was Ticonderoga, called the Key of the North. It was garrisoned by three thousand men, under the command of General St. Clair, and with proper generalship ought to have been impregnable. But St. Clair permitted the English engineers to plant two strong batteries, one on Mount Hope and the other on Sugar Loaf Mountain, the latter supposed to be inaccessible. Gates had been warned a few weeks previously of the danger of leaving these positions undefended, but, with his characteristic self-conceit, he had scorned to take the advice. Sugar Loaf Mountain completely commanded Ticonderoga; and the only course open to St. Clair was to order a retreat. But a retreat was not easily effected, owing to the accidental firing of one of the officers' houses, which gave the

Burgoyne's invasion.

enemy warning. St. Clair was closely pursued by General Fraser, Burgoyne's ablest and most active officer. There was considerable fighting, the advantage being generally on the side of the British. The American loss in men and material, which could ill be spared, was very severe. Finally, after retreating by a circuitous route of a hundred miles, St. Clair reached Fort Edward with a small portion of the garrison. The loss of Ticonderoga filled the patriots with dismay, the English and Tories with delight. The entire North now seemed open and defenseless, with no American force strong enough to prevent the junction of Howe and Burgoyne.

Capture of Ticonderoga.

Part of Burgoyne's plan of campaign was to send a force up the St. Lawrence to Oswego, for the purpose of capturing Fort Schuyler, and thereby of obtaining control of the Mohawk valley. If the British succeeded in taking this important position, they could make a flank movement on Albany, and arouse the friendly Tories on the march. Colonel St. Leger was selected for the command of this coöperating expedition. Accordingly, on the 3d of August, he appeared before Fort Schuyler with seven hundred regular troops and one thousand Indians, under the command of their chief, Colonel Brant, and summoned the garrison to surrender. This Colonel Gansevoort of New York promptly declined to do.

The patriots of the valley turned out in great numbers, under an old veteran, General Herkimer, to assist their friends in the fort. St. Leger turned aside from the siege to attack this new force on Aug. 6. He found the Americans marching carelessly through the woods at Oriskany, and suddenly opening a destructive fire on them, cut off the rear guard from the main body, and mortally wounded Herkimer. But the brave old general sat leaning against a tree, and coolly gave his orders while smoking his pipe. The Americans, notwithstanding the surprise, fought bravely. Colonel Gansevoort, hearing the fire, ordered a sortie, which put the enemy to flight. The British lost their artillery,

Battle of Oriskany.

ammunition, and tents; and the Indians, hearing that General Arnold was approaching with a large force, deserted, panic-stricken, in great numbers.

At Fort Edward, Schuyler had but five thousand men with which to oppose Burgoyne's greatly superior force. He was compelled, therefore, to fall back slowly, first to Moses Creek, and afterwards to Saratoga, destroying bridges, felling trees, and obstructing roads on the march. Such were the obstacles in his path, that Burgoyne did not reach Fort Edward until the 30th of July. Here he found difficulty in obtaining provisions for his troops and forage for his horses; for he was now a considerable distance from his base of supplies, with active enemies in his rear.

Schuyler's tactics.

Hearing that there were stores collected at Bennington, he chose one of his best officers, a German named Baum, and sent him out with five hundred soldiers and one hundred Indians to seize them. Colonel Baum, soon learning that the Americans were strongly intrenched at Bennington, sent back for reënforcements. But before these could arrive, on Aug. 16, he was attacked with great vigor by General Stark, at the head of some New Hampshire militia and "Green Mountain Boys," and completely defeated. Baum was mortally wounded. The Americans then scattered carelessly over the field of battle. The English reënforcement, under Colonel Breymann, coming up at this moment, suddenly made an attack; but they, too, were driven from the field by a splendid charge led by Colonel Seth Warner. The Americans captured four cannon and seven hundred prisoners. In the victory at Bennington, General Stark manifested great skill and courage; and tradition says that, in going into battle and seeing the redcoats, he exclaimed, "There they are, boys. We beat them to-day, or Molly Stark's a widow." Like Trenton and Princeton, Oriskany and Bennington turned the tide of disaster, inspired hope in the hearts of the patriots, and sent recruits in thousands to the American army at Saratoga.

Battle of Bennington.

Owing to the loss of Ticonderoga and the schemes of certain politicians in Congress and in the army, Schuyler, notwithstanding his previous good generalship, was superseded in the command of the Army of the North by General Horatio Gates. Gates was chiefly noted for his pomposity, his political craft, and his want of loyalty to Washington. In assuming the chief command, he found everything prepared for him. Burgoyne was far from his base of supplies. All the avenues by which he might obtain provisions and supplies were in the hands of the Americans. Herkimer's and Stark's victories had increased Gates's army until it greatly outnumbered that of the enemy. Washington with all speed had forwarded troops, including Daniel Morgan's famous Virginia rangers. So that General Gates had little to do but to reap the crop of glory planted by other hands. Acting under the advice of Arnold and Kosciusko, a Polish engineer of great ability, Gates, on the 12th of September, took up a strong position on Bemis Heights, in the town of Stillwater, which was strengthened by a line of breastworks and redoubts. His right was protected by the Hudson, his left by ridges and woods, and his center by a ravine. Before Burgoyne could continue his march to Albany, it was necessary to rout the enemy in front of him.

Schuyler superseded by Gates.

Gates.

The battle commenced on the 19th of September. Burgoyne moved his center, where he himself commanded, against the American left, while General Fraser moved still farther to the west, for the purpose of making a flank movement. Arnold, supported by Morgan, was in command of the American left wing. Fighting was continued all day in ravines and thick woods, with varying fortune. The British, knowing their critical situation,

Battle of Bemis Heights.

fought with desperation, the patriots with undaunted courage. At night the Americans withdrew within their lines; the British were left in possession of the field. All the advantages of a victory, however, remained with the Americans, who lost half as many men as the British. Burgoyne was slow to make another attack. His provisions became scarce. Stark threatened Fort Edward. Colonel Brown attacked Fort Ticonderoga, and took some prisoners and guns. In point of fact, the British general was surrounded and entrapped. Every day he expected assistance from New York, but none ever came.

Sir Henry Clinton had made a diversion up the Hudson, threatening Albany. But he went no farther than Kingston, which he burnt. He captured Forts Clinton and Montgomery, but afforded no aid to the doomed army of Burgoyne.

Finally, on the 7th of October, Burgoyne determined to make another attack, as before, on the American left. This time the fighting was more severe while it lasted. In one hour it was all over; and the Americans had won a complete victory. The British were driven within their lines in utter disorder. Arnold, in spite of the fact that Gates had removed him from the command, was everywhere in the thickest of the battle, cheering on his men, and fighting like a common soldier, with that reckless courage for which he was remarkable. He and Morgan actually broke through the enemies' line of works; and in this last charge Arnold was wounded. Well for him had he been killed at this glorious moment! For his splendid achievements in this important battle, Congress made him a major general.

Bravery of Arnold and Morgan.

Owing to the losses sustained in four battles, and having received no reënforcements, Burgoyne's army was not now more than half that of Gates, and was in a very critical position. On the night of the 8th of October he quietly fell back to Saratoga, and took up a position on the north side of the Fishkill. Gates promptly pursued, and so arranged his army as virtually to surround the British. In this desperate situation, with only five days' provisions, Burgoyne called a council

of war. The officers voted unanimously to surrender. Accordingly, on the 17th of October, the British marched out of their camps and laid down their arms. Burgoyne surrendered his sword to Gates. By the agreement the British soldiers were allowed to march out with all the honors of war, and have free passage to England, on condition that they should not serve again during the war.

Burgoyne's surrender.

The two battles of Bemis Heights, or Saratoga as they are sometimes called, are among the decisive battles of the world, because they proved the ability of the Americans to win their independence, and led to those treaties of alliance with France and other powers which morally and materially assisted the United States in the grand struggle against despotic power. Twice before these battles the cause had been almost lost; once after the disastrous battle of Long Island, and again after the capture of Philadelphia and Ticonderoga. But from this time forth the Americans never lost heart or hope.

While Howe's army had abundance at Philadelphia, Washington's army was suffering untold misery at Valley Forge. His troops were half naked, and more than half starved. Many were without shoes. They lived in huts of their own construction, composed of logs plastered with mud. Each hut was fourteen by sixteen feet, and accommodated twelve men. For want of straw they were compelled to sleep on the damp earth. Their only comfort was heat, for they could obtain all the wood they wanted. Congress had changed its quarters from Lancaster to York. It seemed either unable or unwilling to obtain money to pay the soldiers. This utter wretchedness caused many to desert. The death rate among them during this terrible winter was thirty-three per cent. An idea may be formed of the destitution of the army from the fact that four thousand men were unfit to turn out for military duty simply for want of clothing. The responsibility which weighed on Washington's mind at this time would have driven a man less great to despair.

Miseries at Valley Forge.

LAKE CHAMPLAIN
and
HUDSON RIVER.
By Russell Hinman, C.E.
0 10 Miles 20 25
Battlefields
74°
73°
74°
46°
45°
44°
43°
42°
41°
St. Sorel
Ottawa River
Isle Jesus
R. des Prairies
Montreal
Isle of Montreal
Ile a Chine
Longueuil
Chambly
St. Anne
Vaudreuil
La Prairie
Cedars
St. Johns
Isle Aux Noix
La Colle Mills
Rouses Pt.
Lake Champlain
Chazy
Chazy River
Plattsburgh
Salmon R.
Saranac R.
Au Sable R.
Wynoski R.
Burlington
Adirondack Mountains
Adirondack Range
Mt. Marcy
Mt. Dix
Crown Point
Ticonderoga
Ft. Independence
Ft. Defiance
Schroon Lake
Hubbardton
Pittsford
Rutland
Castleton
Bolton
Kenesboro
Lake George
Ft. Wm. Henry
Ft. George
Ft. Ann
Ft. Edward
Hudson River
Saratoga Lake
Saratoga
Ft. Hardy
Battenkill
Salem
Bemis Heights
Bennington
Mohawk R.
Cohoes
Troy
Albany
Greenbush
Normanskill
Coeymans Creek
Coeymans
New Baltimore
Athens
Hudson
Catskill
Catskill Mts.
Massachusetts
Mountains
Middle Ground Flats
Middle Ground
Quarantine
Glasco
Kingston
Rondout
Barrytown
Rhinebeck
Rondout Cr.
Esopus Cr.
Wallkill River
Roeliff Jansen's Cr.
Saw Kill
New Platz
Poughkeepsie
Fishkill Cr.
Wappingers Cr.
Wappingers Creek
Fishkill
New Hamburg
Newburgh
Constitution
Highlands
West Point
Ft. Webb
Ft. Wyllys
Ft. Montgomery
Ft. Clinton
Independence
Peekskill
Stony Point
Haverstraw
Tappan Zee
Nyack
North Castle
Tarrytown
White Plains
Long Island Sound
New Rochelle
Yonkers
Ft. Washington
Morrisania
Harlem
West Chester
Ft. Lee
Hackensack R.
Palisades
Paulus Hook
New York
Jersey
Flushing
Newtown
Bushwick
Battle Pass
New Lots
Flatbush
Flatlands
Gravesend
Long Island
Port Richmond
Staten Is.
Tottenville
Sandy Hook Bay
Sandy Hook
ATLANTIC OCEAN
Connecticut River
Housatonic River
L. B. Folger Sc. Cin.

CHAPTER XX.

THE REVOLUTIONARY WAR — Continued.

"Though those that are betrayed
Do feel the treason sharply, yet the traitor
Stands in worse case of woe."

Events of 1778.

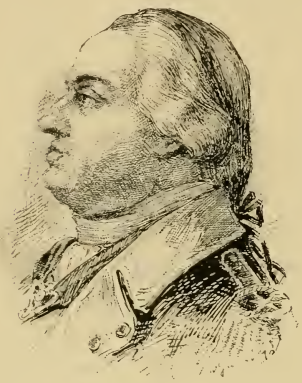
As if Washington's cup of misery were not already full to overflowing, an infamous conspiracy was formed during the winter of 1777 and 1778 for his removal from the position of commander in chief. This conspiracy is known in history as the "Conway Cabal." Its purpose was to make the pompous and conceited Gates head of the army, and to give the important positions to its members. It received its name from Conway, an Irishman by birth, a Frenchman by adoption.

The Conway Cabal.

Its chief members were Gates, now president of the Board of War; Mifflin, quartermaster general; and Lee, who had unfortunately been exchanged, to damage the cause he pretended to serve. Joined with them were certain members of Congress who wished to effect a change. Puffed up with his success at Saratoga — a success achieved by Schuyler, Herkimer, Stark, Arnold, and Morgan — Gates had sent his report of the battles direct to Congress, thus ignoring and insulting Washington, his chief commander. The conspirators accused Washington of want of dash and enterprise and of lack of all those qualities which constitute a great and successful general. They wrote anonymous letters to Patrick Henry, governor of Virginia, and to Henry Laurens, president of Congress; but these patriots immediately forwarded them to the commander in chief. They also tried to tamper with the State legislatures,

but in vain. Just as soon as the conspiracy was discovered and exposed, it fell to pieces like a house of cards; for the great heart of America was true to her illustrious chief. In one way or another every man of the cabal came to grief, as he deserved. Conway was shot in a duel with Cadwallader, and, thinking he was dying, wrote a penitent letter to Washington. Gates and Mifflin ceased to be members of the Military Board; and the former was sent to take charge of the fortifications on the Hudson. Mifflin was tried by court-martial for mismanagement of the quartermaster's department, and Lee soon afterwards met a similar fate. Had this vile cabal succeeded in ousting Washington, the independence of America would have been lost, or indefinitely postponed.

Defeat of the cabal.



Steuben.

In strong contrast with Conway, Gates, and Lee, were Lafayette, whom the cabal had tried to seduce by the promise of high command; Baron De Kalb, ever true and loyal; Kosciusko, whose engineering skill helped the Americans to gain the two battles of Saratoga; and Baron Von Steuben, an officer who had studied the art of war under Frederick the Great of Prussia. It will be remembered that when Congress adopted the Declaration of Independence, it appointed a committee on foreign alliances. Benjamin Franklin and Silas Deane had been very active in securing aid from France, and in sending over officers who had received a military education. The most useful of all these was Steuben, who introduced the Prussian tactics into the American army, so that in subsequent battles the soldiers were able to move like machines.

Foreign officers.

The skill and vigor displayed by Washington in the retreat from Long Island, in the victories at Trenton and Princeton, and in holding Howe at bay with his superior force at Philadelphia, and, above all, the surrender of Burgoyne at Saratoga, had convinced the European powers, as well as a large minority of the British people, that the independence of the United States was now assured.

These victories enabled the American commissioners, and especially Benjamin Franklin, who was a great favorite at the French court, to press the claims of the United States for recognition as a sovereign and independent State. Their efforts were crowned with success. On the 6th of February, 1778, a treaty of alliance, offensive and defensive, was concluded between France and America, both binding themselves not to make peace with Great Britain until she acknowledged the independence of the United States. On the 2d of May, the treaty was ratified by Congress. Next to the Declaration of Independence this was the most important political event of the Revolution; for it secured for the Americans the moral and material aid of one of the foremost powers of Europe, and led to alliances with other European nations, which made it impossible for Great Britain to subjugate the United States.

Alliance with France.

The British prime minister, Lord North, very much alarmed at the French treaty with the United States, perceived that unless he could come to terms with the American patriots, war with France was inevitable. He introduced two conciliatory bills, which were passed in both houses of Parliament by a bare majority. He conceded all for which the colonists had taken up arms in 1775. *He conceded the right to tax themselves.* In fact, he conceded everything except absolute independence. But his concessions came too late. He sent out commissioners to Congress with proposals for peace. The latter body informed them that nothing could be done until Great Britain withdrew her armies and fleets, and acknowledged the independence of America.

Great Britain sues for peace.

It so happened that George III. and his ministers always yielded at the wrong time.

In the spring of 1778 there were no military movements of any importance beyond a few raids here and there in search of provisions, followed by the usual skirmishing on both sides. The British government, learning that Count D'Estaing was on his way to America with a large French fleet, and fearing that he might blockade the Delaware River, and thus imperil the English army in Philadelphia, sent out orders to Sir Henry Clinton, Howe's successor, to evacuate the city, and concentrate his forces in New York. With an effective army of fourteen thousand men, and all the plunder he had been able to secure, Clinton commenced his retreat on the 18th of June under a broiling sun. So fierce was the heat that a body of seven hundred Hessians deserted in safety. Washington, ever on the alert, being correctly informed of this movement, determined to pursue the enemy, and to strike him a blow while on the march through New Jersey. In numbers he was now superior to Clinton, and the drilling the army had received from Steuben made its discipline as effective as that of the British.

Clinton.

Clinton evacuates Philadelphia

Washington crossed the Delaware, and sent out a detachment to coöperate with the New Jersey militia in annoying and retarding Clinton's retreat. He called a council of war, in which he recommended bringing on a general engagement; but the majority was opposed to it. Still resolved not to allow the enemy to escape without a blow, he selected a corps of five thousand troops, and placed them under the command of General Lee, with orders to attack the enemy's rear. Dickinson's militia was to threaten his left, and Morgan's rangers his right. Clinton had reached Monmouth Court House. The two armies on the night of the 27th of June were about five miles apart.

At five o'clock on the morning of the 28th, Knyphausen marched out with the baggage train, while Clinton followed later with the main body of the army. Washington sent orders to Lee to bring on a general engagement as soon as the British showed signs of retreating; but Lee, headstrong and disloyal as ever, had declined to consult with his subordinate generals, and hence there was a great deal of confusion. An attack by Lafayette was repulsed, and Lee gave the order to retreat across a morass in his rear; but through some misunderstanding the troops continued their retreat.

Lee's disobedience.

The danger was imminent. Had not Washington himself come up and rallied the Americans, and restored them to order, the battle would have been lost. At the same time he reprimanded Lee in no gentle language, and commanded him, in severe terms, to take a strong position, and oppose the enemy. This position he held until the main body of the army arrived, when the battle became general. It lasted until night, with the advantage decidedly in favor of the Americans. The loss was about equal. But during the night the British silently stole away, not wishing for another such encounter. Once more the elements favored the cause of liberty. The day was so oppressively hot that a number of the enemy, unaccustomed to the climate, were sunstruck.

Battle of Monmouth.

Lee wrote Washington two insolent letters, for which, and for his disobedience and misbehavior before the enemy, he was court-martialed, and suspended from the army for one year. Happily this ended his military career in America.

Clinton continued his march to Sandy Hook, whence he was transported by the fleet to New York. Washington took up a position at White Plains, where he could watch and circumvent the operations of the British generals.

Arrival of D'Estaing.

About the middle of July, Count D'Estaing arrived at Rhode Island with a fleet of twelve ships, containing four thousand French soldiers. This armament was originally intended for the blockade of the Delaware, to relieve Phila-

delphia, and to coöperate with Washington's army. But it arrived too late to accomplish anything in this direction. Clinton had escaped to New York in safety, notwithstanding the severe check he had received at Monmouth.

For some unaccountable reason D'Estaing imagined that his vessels could not pass the bar at the entrance of New York Harbor; so he sailed to Newport to assist General Sullivan in driving the British out of Rhode Island. General Pigot, the British commander, hearing of the arrival of the French, set fire to all the ships in the harbor. Sullivan had ten thousand militia and Continentals, with Greene and Lafayette commanding divisions of the army. It was agreed that the combined Americans and French should attack the enemy on the 10th of August; but Sullivan, in his haste to seize the northern end of the island, moved his troops too soon, without notifying D'Estaing. In the meantime a fleet of thirty-six vessels, under Lord Howe, arrived from New York. The French commander put out to sea for the purpose of bringing on a general engagement. While maneuvering for position, a great storm arose which scattered both fleets. The English returned to New York and the French to Newport. Then the latter sailed to Boston for repairs and refitting, taking with them the four thousand soldiers, instead of leaving them to coöperate with Sullivan.

D'Estaing's fleet scattered.

Notwithstanding the conduct of the French, General Sullivan drove the enemy within their intrenchments; and on the 29th of July he determined to hazard a battle. The British, observing his movements, advanced from their works, and attacked the Americans with great energy; but they were vigorously repulsed. Both sides fought desperately; and though the enemy had captured some of the American positions, all the advantages of victory remained with the patriots, who lost only a little over two hundred men, while the loss of the British was over a thousand. Sullivan had received timely warning that Clinton had sent a reënforcement of five thousand troops from New York. He

Battle of Rhode Island.

therefore withdrew his army in safety to the mainland. From Boston, D'Estaing sailed to the West Indies; and thus ended an expedition from which so much had been expected.

The meanest and most vindictive Tories in America were those inhabiting Central New York. In this section the contest between Whig and Tory was exceedingly bitter, and oftentimes even families were divided. In the early summer Colonel John Butler and John Brant, an influential Indian chief, collected a large force of savage Indians and Tories, and began a merciless massacre of old men, women, and children, while their protectors were away. A force of three hundred patriots rashly attacked a superior force of Indians and Tories, and only sixty escaped with their lives. As the news of the terrible burnings, massacres, and scalpings were spread through the valley, many of the people sought refuge in Fort Wyoming, then commanded by Colonel Dennison. This officer surrendered the fort on condition that the people should be permitted to return to their homes unmolested. The promises, of course, were broken, and a general massacre followed on July 3, 1778.

Massacre of Wyoming.

Later in the year Walter N. Butler, the cruel son of a cruel father, having escaped from Albany, where he had been a prisoner, resolved to take revenge by burning some peaceable village. He selected Cherry Valley as the victim of his malice. Colonel Alden, who was in command of the fort at this place, was surprised, Nov. 10, outside the works, pursued, and slain. Then began the slaughter of the innocent women and children. The fort, however, was not captured.

Cherry Valley.

Toward the close of the year 1778 General Clinton, having signally failed to reduce the Middle, as Howe had previously failed to reduce the New England States, resolved to commence operations against the South, which he knew was full of friendly Tories. Accordingly, he sent Colonel Campbell with a force of two thousand men to take Savannah, the chief town of Georgia. General Howe, the American com-

mander, had only six hundred Continentals and a small body of militia with which to oppose the enemy. His position, however, was a very strong one. He had a lagoon on his front, a morass on his right, the swamps of the river on his left, and the fortifications of the town in his rear. But he left a pass through the swamp unguarded, which Colonel Campbell discovered; and, guided by a negro, he crossed over and turned Howe's right, while he attacked the Americans in front, and completely routed them. Savannah was captured, and, soon afterwards, Sunbury and Augusta.

Capture of Savannah.

Wayne.

One of the most brilliant exploits of the war was the capture of Stony Point by General Wayne. This fortress was situated upon a rocky and almost inaccessible hill on the Hudson, about forty miles from New York. It contained a garrison of six hundred men well supplied with stores and ammunition. Washington planned and organized the expedition. On the 15th of July, Wayne marched fourteen miles over difficult roads and mountain passes, and at eight o'clock in the evening arrived within a mile of the fort. Here he formed his troops into two columns, and ordered them to move forward with fixed bayonets. At midnight they reached the outer works. But the neck of land leading to the Point was covered with water, and the delay in crossing gave the enemy time to discover the movement. The British opened fire on the advancing columns; but nothing could withstand the courage and enthusiasm of the Americans. They carried the fortress by storm, and captured five hundred prisoners, and large quantities of stores and ammunition.

Capture of Stony Point.

CHAPTER XXI.

THE REVOLUTIONARY WAR — Continued.

"When Freedom from her mountain height
Unfurled her standard to the air,
She tore the azure robe of night,
And set the stars of glory there."

General Observations.

The first Continental flag was adopted by Congress while Washington was conducting the siege of Boston. On the 2d of January, 1776, it was raised in the presence of the whole army. It consisted of thirteen stripes, to represent the thirteen States, and the union of the British standard, the crosses of St. George and St. Andrew. Prior to this there had been several State flags, but no national flag. That of Massachusetts was white, with a pine tree in the center. The first naval flag was yellow, with a rattlesnake in the act of striking, and the significant words: "*Don't tread on me.*" On the 14th of July, 1777, Congress by resolution adopted a new flag, which consisted of thirteen stripes, alternately red and white, and thirteen white stars on a blue field, emblematic of a new constellation. With the addition of a star for each new State, this flag has remained ever since the flag of the United States of America.

The American flag.

In the beginning of the struggle for independence the patriots wisely made no regular attempt to contend with Great Britain on the ocean. The rivers, the mountains, the swamps, and the forests gave the Americans a great advantage in the contest by land. Every rod of ground from Boston to Savannah was thoroughly familiar to Washington and his generals, while it was comparatively an unknown territory to the British commanders. This knowledge of the country counts

for a great deal in the conduct of campaigns; and the Americans never failed to profit by it.

Congress spent four years in building five frigates, two of which were burnt to prevent their falling into the hands of the enemy. England, as "mistress of the seas," had virtually destroyed American commerce. But American capital found employment and sought remuneration in preying on British merchant ships. The trade of the West Indies was actually crippled by United States privateers. An idea may be formed of the great damage inflicted on the enemy by the fact that vessels and cargoes to the value of $10,000,000, an immense sum in that day, had been captured or destroyed.

American privateers.

The most daring of all these privateers was Paul Jones, whom the English called "pirate" for doing acts precisely similar to their own in Virginia and Connecticut. Through the influence of Benjamin Franklin, the American envoy at the court of France, Jones obtained an old Indiaman, which he fitted out as a man-of-war, and named the *Bon Homme Richard*, in honor of Franklin's book, *Poor Richard's Almanac*. In this vessel he fearlessly roamed the British seas, inflicting great losses on the enemy's commerce. He ravaged a portion of Scotland, and made an effort to burn Whitehaven.

Paul Jones.

Paul Jones.

On the 22d of September he sighted the *Serapis*, a fifty-gun frigate commanded by Captain Pearson, and the *Countess of Scarborough*, of twenty-two guns, convoying a fleet of merchantmen. The *Richard*

had two consorts, the *Alliance* and *Pallas;* the latter captured the *Countess of Scarborough*, and the former took a position between the *Richard* and the *Serapis;* but it is said that she inflicted more injury on her consort than on her enemy. Without regard to the greatly superior force of the *Serapis*, Jones boldly commenced the pursuit. He overtook her an hour after sunset off Flamborough Head. Here, under the light of a full moon, commenced one of the most extraordinary sea fights on record. Jones caused the two ships to be grappled together. Guns were fired, hand grenades were flung from the yardarms, and hand to hand contests amid the smoke and din of artillery, with pike and cutlass, were of frequent occurrence. The *Richard* was so riddled that she was already sinking, and the *Serapis* was on fire in several places. Pearson called upon Jones to surrender. The hero's reply was, "I have not begun to fight." For two hours the desperate contest was continued, until at last the proud standard of England went down before the starry flag. Congress gave Jones a vote of thanks, and the King of France presented him with a sword.

Great naval victory.

In the spring and summer Clinton sent out plundering expeditions for the sole purpose of annoying the patriots. He sent one to Virginia under General Matthews, which destroyed large quantities of merchandise at Norfolk and Portsmouth; and another under General Tryon into Connecticut, which committed crimes of the worst kind. The people, however, fled to arms to protect their homes and families from the British and Hessian invaders. But the latter were not driven to their ships until they had done an immense amount of damage.

Plundering expeditions.

EVENTS OF 1779.

Nowhere, except in Middle New York, were the Tories more active or more malicious than in the three States of North and South Carolina and Georgia. The inhabitants were nearly equally divided in political opinion, almost one half of them

adhering to the royal cause. With the British occupation of Georgia, civil war of the most bitter and vindictive kind burst out, neighbor against neighbor, district against district, and county against county. Personal hatred was added to the ordinary horrors of battle and bloodshed.

Colonel Boyd raised a band of Tories in the western part of North Carolina, and, while on his march to join Colonel Campbell, he was suddenly attacked by a band of patriots under Colonel Pickens, and completely routed. Pickens took seventy prisoners, whom he tried for treason against the United States, and condemned them all to death; but only five of them were executed.

Soon afterwards, on March 3, General Ashe, with fifteen hundred North Carolina militia, was surprised at Briar Creek, and badly beaten. The bloody skirmishes, the hand to hand encounters, the ambushed assaults, the sudden surprises by night and the impetuous charges by day, the rapid retreat before superior forces, while exhibiting the reckless bravery of the people, had little direct influence on the general contest between Great Britain and the United States.

Briar Creek.

Lincoln, who had superseded Howe as the American commander in the South, spent the spring marching and countermarching, in an endeavor to outmaneuver General Prevost. The latter made an attempt on Charleston; but, although some of the civil authorities were willing to surrender the town, in order to save their property, the brave General Moultrie and the patriotic Governor Rutledge would not permit them. Lincoln attacked the enemy at Stono Ferry; but the Americans were defeated with considerable loss. The British soon afterwards fell back on Savannah.

Expedition against Tories and Indians.

Remembering the fearful atrocities committed at Wyoming and Cherry Valley by the savage Indians and their more savage allies, the Tories and British, an expedition was sent out under General Sullivan to destroy their power, and to inflict a well-merited punishment for their

crimes and cruelties. The command had been first offered to Gates; but that vain-glorious general thought it beneath his dignity, and in an insolent letter to Washington declined to accept it.

Notwithstanding the disastrous failure of the first invasion of Canada, there was a strong party in Congress that urged a second, against the repeated protests of the commander in chief. Partly to satisfy this party, Sullivan was directed to capture Fort Niagara; but the real purpose of the expedition was the destruction of the Indian and Tory power in Central New York and Western Pennsylvania.

Most thoroughly did the American general accomplish the work assigned him. He found the Indians, Tories, and British regulars, amounting to twelve hundred men, intrenched at an Indian village named Newton, now known as Elmira, on the Chemung River. The position was exceedingly strong; but Sullivan, with his superior force, attacked them front and rear at the same moment, and utterly routed them. So complete was the victory, that the savages were never again able to present an organized opposition to the desolating march of the American army. Sullivan destroyed everything in his path. Wigwams, log houses, and food of all kinds for winter use, were burnt or laid waste. Forty villages were reduced to ashes. Even the very fruit trees were cut down. The power of the Six Nations was completely broken.

Sullivan's victory.

The winter of 1779 and 1780 was dreadfully severe. The Hudson, the East River, and a large part of New York Bay, were solidly frozen, so that loaded wagons could cross from one side to the other. Washington's army, stationed at Morristown, amounted to fifteen thousand men, poorly fed, badly clothed, and unpaid. Terms of enlistment were constantly expiring; trained soldiers were returning to their homes, and their places were being filled by raw militia; and suffering and discontent prevailed among those who remained. Some of them — a New Jersey

Washington's difficulties.

brigade and a portion of the Pennsylvania line — actually mutinied.

Congress had virtually no money with which to pay the soldiers. It had been found inexpedient and impolitic to impose a tax on the several States. In 1775 Congress had issued bills of credit to the amount of $3,000,000, to be redeemed in gold or silver in 1779. But these bills had so declined in value, that in the winter of 1779 and 1780 the Continental paper dollar was worth only two and a half cents in specie. As the value of the bills gradually fell off, Congress was compelled to issue more and more of this paper money, until it reached the enormous sum of $200,000,000. The natural depreciation of the currency was accelerated by the infamous forgeries of the enemy. The English counterfeits could not be distinguished from the genuine bills; so that in 1780 the Continental paper money was practically worthless.

Depreciated currency.

Had not Washington been loved and trusted, as no other man was ever loved and trusted, his army would have melted away into nothing, or would have marched on Congress, overturned the government, and established anarchy. With a small army, in such a wretched condition, Washington held Clinton's force of thirty thousand well-equipped troops penned up in New York. Fortunately the British commander in chief was slow and timorous. Fortunately, too, he conceived the idea of conquering the States by moving northward from Georgia. Cornwallis, the second in command, disagreed with his chief, and thought the best plan was to make Virginia the center of operations. This lack of harmony was beneficial to the cause of independence. Such was the condition of affairs at this period of the Revolution. It was one of the darkest hours of the long night; but it was the hour before the dawn of success.

The patriots were greatly disappointed at the failure of the French fleet under D'Estaing to accomplish anything favorable to the Americans. Much had been expected from the French alliance; but beyond its moral support — and that was worth a

great deal — it had effected thus far very little in hastening the overthrow of British power. The French admiral spent most of his time in the West Indies, fighting for his own king and country. At last he sent word to General Lincoln, then at Charleston, that he would lend his aid in a short campaign in Georgia. The American general immediately moved his army against Savannah; but before his arrival the town had been invested and summoned to surrender by Count D'Estaing. The British general, Prevost, asked for a delay of twenty-four hours, which was unwisely granted. He used the time to excellent advantage in receiving reënforcements, and in mounting additional guns. Then he defiantly refused to surrender. D'Estaing would not await the slow process of a siege; and hence it was resolved to carry the town by assault.

Count D'Estaing.

On the 9th of October the French and American forces, aided by the ships in the harbor, commenced the attack with great ardor; but the defense was conducted with superior skill, the British fighting behind strong breastworks. The assault was repulsed, with great loss to the allies. Among the slain was the brave Count Pulaski. D'Estaing then sailed to the West Indies, and Lincoln returned to Charleston.

Failure of combined attack.

EVENTS OF 1780.

In pursuance of his favorite plan of conquest, and encouraged by the defeat of the attack on Savannah, Clinton, leaving New York in command of General Knyphausen, sailed to Charleston with seven thousand veteran troops. The American force for the defense of the town was only three thousand men, most of whom were militia. Instead of saving his small army by a timely retreat, Lincoln unwisely resolved to defend the town, urged to this course by the threats of its inhabitants. When Clinton had finished his first parallel, he demanded a surrender, which Lincoln refused. The British fleet occupied the bay, and the

Fall of Charleston.

Americans had no force to oppose it. The British army occupied every rod of the land in the rear ; so that the American army was completely surrounded. It was certain destruction to attempt to cut a passage through the British works. After a siege of two months, on the 12th of May, the American army capitulated, and the enemy took possession of the most important town in the Southern States.

Sir Henry Clinton thinking that with the fall of Charleston, Georgia and the Carolinas were completely subdued and restored to the authority of the Crown, left four thousand troops under the command of Lord Cornwallis, and returned to his headquarters at New York. Before his departure, however, he had issued some arbitrary and cruel orders, compelling paroled prisoners to swear allegiance to the King, and to take up arms against their fellow-countrymen.

The Tories became exceedingly cruel and bloodthirsty. The Whigs, as the patriots were called, were roused to fury. Armed men sprang up in the western mountains and in the swamps of South Carolina ; and, led by Sumter, Marion, Lee, and Williams, fought and suffered in the cause of independence with a courage and a self-denial beyond all praise. Had Gates, who succeeded Lincoln, pursued Washington's Fabian policy, and avoided a battle until he had secured the aid of these noble partisan soldiers, he might have achieved a great success. But unfortunately for himself and the cause he served, he was in hot haste to immortalize himself once more as at Saratoga. The change from Lincoln to Gates was simply a change from one poor general to another, perhaps to an inferior. Lee, his colleague in the Conway Cabal, knowing his character and abilities, wittily warned him on taking the command to beware that "*his northern laurels did not turn to southern willows.*"

Partisan chieftains.

The brave Baron De Kalb was marching through an exhausted country with reënforcements from the north; and finding himself unable to obtain supplies, was on the point of changing his course to the fertile fields of Mecklenburg when

General Gates reached the camp. To the baron's amazement, he immediately issued an order to his soldiers to be ready to march at a moment's notice. In vain he was warned of the danger of a forward movement. On the 27th of July he commenced his march toward Camden, through a region of pine barrens and sand-hill swamps, where his army was obliged to live on lean cattle and green corn. As a consequence of such fare, great numbers were taken sick. The British commander, Lord Rawdon, had taken up a strong position at Camden, where he was soon afterwards joined by Lord Cornwallis. At two o'clock in the morning of August 16th the two armies stumbled against each other, but deferred fighting until daylight. The enemy's army amounted to two thousand men, five hundred of whom were Tories; and Gates's army was one third larger, but two thirds were raw militia.

De Kalb.

The American commander was now compelled to fight, for retreat was more dangerous than a battle. At the first charge of the British, the Virginia militia, under Colonel Stevens, threw down their arms and fled. The North Carolina militia were panic-stricken, and ran from the field without firing a shot. Gates and some of his officers did what they could to restore order, but in vain; and supposing that all was lost, and that the regulars had also been beaten, he placed sixty miles between himself and his pursuers. The regulars, however, had not fled. On the contrary, they had held their ground with undaunted courage, and at one time, under the lead of De Kalb, had broken the British line by a splendid charge with the bayonet; but they were soon overwhelmed by superior numbers.

Gates's defeat at Camden.

A third of the Continentals were killed or wounded, and among them the brave De Kalb, who died three days after the battle. Gates's army as a military organization was simply destroyed. Had it not been for his unmerited Saratoga fame, he would have been court-martialed and dismissed from the service. In his misfortunes Washington exhibited toward him a generosity and magnanimity which he did not deserve.

CHAPTER XXII.

THE REVOLUTIONARY WAR — Continued.

"Oh, that a soldier so glorious, ever victorious in fight,
Passed from a daylight of honor into the terrible night;
Fell as the mighty archangel, ere the earth glowed in space, fell —
Fell from the patriot's heaven down to the loyalist's hell."

The Treason of Benedict Arnold.

The blackest crime of the Revolution was the treason of Benedict Arnold. A courageous soldier, bold to temerity, he seems to have been born without a conscience. He was, therefore, utterly selfish and unprincipled. On account of the wound received at Saratoga, he was appointed commandant at Philadelphia where he gratified his pride by living far beyond his means. His debts were large and pressing. The means he took to retrieve his fortunes were incompatible with his position as a general officer. The Executive Council of Pennsylvania brought eight charges against him; but as he was a United States officer they were forwarded to Congress, together with documents and a letter from President Reed. This was exceedingly mortifying to Arnold's pride, the more particularly as he was engaged to Miss Shippen, whom he subsequently married. She was the daughter of a Philadelphia merchant of Tory opinions.

Charges against Arnold.

Arnold.

The Congressional Committee acquitted Arnold of all criminality, but recommended that he should be tried by court-martial on certain charges which only a military tribunal could notice. On two of the charges he was found guilty,

and sentenced to a reprimand from the commander in chief. Washington performed this duty in the kindest and most delicate manner. The reprimand assumed the form of a eulogy. But Arnold's haughty soul was mortified beyond healing. From this moment he resolved to betray his country. In July, 1780, he sought and obtained the position of commandant at West Point, the key of the Hudson, and the means of communication between the New England and the Middle States. This fortress and its dependencies once in the hands of the enemy, either of two things must happen, the subjugation of the States, or the indefinite prolongation of the war.

Arnold reprimanded by Washington.

Under the assumed name of *Gustavus*, Arnold opened communication with Sir Henry Clinton, through the intervention of his adjutant general, Major André, who had taken the name of *John Anderson*, and pretended to be a merchant. Their correspondence was conducted in mercantile phrases. They haggled like a pair of sordid traders about the price of treason. Finally it was agreed that Arnold should receive the position of brigadier general, and ten thousand pounds sterling, for the surrender of West Point. In order to finish the bargain and sale, André was induced to enter within the American lines in disguise. When everything was settled to the satisfaction of both, Arnold furnished him with a passport, with which he tried to reach New York.

Intrigues with André.

He had actually reached the British lines at Tarrytown, a region overrun with Tories, called "cow boys," when he was suddenly brought to a stand by three patriots, John Paulding, Isaac Van Wart, and David Williams. Mistaking them for friends, he betrayed himself. He then offered them his watch and money if they would let him go free. But they were incorruptible. They carried him a prisoner to Northcastle. By a deplorable blunder Arnold was apprised of André's arrest, and fled with all haste to the British ship *Vulture*, then at anchor in the Hudson. André was subsequently tried by court-martial,

André captured, tried, and executed.

and very properly condemned and executed as a spy. A great deal of sentimentality was consumed to save this young man from the fate he deserved. But Washington was unyielding. He offered to return him to his friend Clinton, provided the latter would give up Arnold to the Americans. The British general declined the offer; and the greater of the two criminals lived to become, if possible, more infamous by the pursuits of robbery, arson, and murder, even in his own native State of Connecticut.

Victories in the South, 1780.

Except for the guerilla warfare carried on by the partisan patriots, Cornwallis, since Gates's disastrous defeat, was in possession of Georgia and the Carolinas. And to put an end to all opposition, he sent out Ferguson and the ferocious Tarleton to find and disperse these audacious "rebels." The former was directed to march to the relief of Augusta, which was besieged by the Americans under Colonel Clark.

He had hardly started, however, when word reached him that a large body of riflemen from Kentucky and North Carolina, under Colonel Campbell, were moving to the assistance of Clark. This completely turned the tables. Ferguson was compelled to retreat before a superior force. The British commander on the 7th of October took a position on the summit of Kings Mountain, and deemed it impregnable.

Battle of Kings Mountain.

But the Americans in three divisions charged up the mountain; and both sides fought with desperate valor, until the death of Ferguson caused his soldiers to throw down their arms and fly. The Americans won a splendid victory. Three hundred of the enemy were killed or wounded, and eight hundred prisoners taken. They captured also sixteen hundred stands of arms intended for the Tory militia. By this signal defeat of the British, their army was reduced one quarter. What Bennington was to Burgoyne, Kings Mountain was to Cornwallis. From this time the tide of war turned in favor of the Revolution.

CHAPTER XXIII.

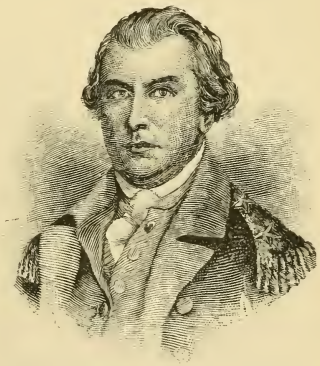
THE REVOLUTIONARY WAR — Continued.

"'Tis much he dares;
And, to that dauntless temper of his mind,
He hath a wisdom that doth guide his valor
To act in safety."

Events of 1781.

Next to Washington, Greene was undoubtedly the ablest general in the American army. From the very beginning of the war he displayed talents of the highest order as an organizer, tactician, and strategist. Oftentimes commanding raw militia, he was defeated in battle, but never routed; and many of his defeats were equivalent to victories. His patriotism was pure and exalted; and to Washington he was always loyal. The friendship between these two great men was only terminated by death. When Washington recommended Greene for the position of chief commander in the South to succeed the unfortunate Gates, he said, "I can at least send you a *general*."

Nathaniel Greene.



Greene.

Greene's treatment of his predecessor was magnanimous. On assuming command, he found Gates at Charlotte utterly depressed by defeat and by the death of his son. To add to his misfortunes, Congress had ordered a court of inquiry into his conduct.

A terrible fall was this for the man who had conspired to supersede Washington, whom he had wantonly insulted after the surrender of Burgoyne. But Greene, in his generosity toward a fallen foe, made several excuses for postponing the investigation; and Gates quietly returned to his farm in Virginia where he remained without command until the close of the war. The commander in chief wrote him a letter of sympathy which he little deserved, for he had been Washington's worst and meanest enemy.

Cornwallis.

Greene found at Charlotte an army of twenty-three hundred men, utterly demoralized by defeat, badly clothed, and poorly fed. He went to work with his usual energy to establish order and discipline, to reorganize his forces, and to promote harmony among his officers. His sagacity and genial manners very soon won the confidence of his subordinates. Like Washington, he kept his own counsel and was resolved to pursue the Fabian policy of delay, to avoid battles unless he was strong enough to strike with a good chance of success. He had been a careful student of the art of war, one of the rules of which is, the smaller the force the more closely it must be kept together. He knew that a veteran general like Cornwallis would always conform to the written rules. So, for the purpose of confusing his antagonist, Greene deliberately violated them by dividing his small force, and sending Morgan forth with a thousand men, directing him to take a position at Ninety-Six, and collect the militia of the district. This produced the desired effect. Cornwallis was bewildered, and divided his force.

General Morgan.

His army having been reënforced by fifteen hundred men, under General Leslie, was being prepared for a second invasion of North Carolina, for the purpose of placing it between Greene and reënforcements from the North. But fearing to leave so active a general as Morgan in his rear, he sent out Colonel Tarleton with eleven hundred choice troops, with orders to push the Americans to the uttermost. Cornwallis then marched to the northwest with the main body of his army, to cut off Morgan's retreat, or to prevent his joining Greene.

Now commenced one of the most extraordinary campaigns in history. Tarleton overtook Morgan at the Cowpens, where he had halted to give his soldiers a night's repose. The British commander, in hot haste to reach the Americans, had exhausted his troops by a night march. Morgan had been advised to retreat across the Broad River, six miles in his rear, and take to the mountains. But he well knew that to retreat was even more dangerous than to fight; for Tarleton would surely attack him while crossing. Morgan then posted his men on two heights, the one nearest the enemy held by the militia, and the other by the Continentals, on whose valor he could depend.

Colonel Tarleton.

At eight o'clock on the morning of the 17th of January, Tarleton commenced the attack with his usual impetuosity. As Morgan had anticipated, the militia after their first fire fell back. The British pressed forward, and threw the second line into confusion. At this moment Morgan rode up and ordered a retreat to where Colonel Washington's cavalry were hurrying forward to support the disordered Americans. A fierce onset by Washington, a volley of musketry at close range by Howard, and a bayonet charge, threw the enemy into confusion, and decided the fortune of the day. The British became panic-stricken, abandoned their guns and colors, and fled in utter dismay. The cruel Tarleton barely escaped with his life. Morgan's victory was complete. The British lost three hundred in killed and

Battle of Cowpens.

wounded, and six hundred taken prisoners. The American loss was only twelve killed and sixty wounded.

Morgan's position was now critical. With less than a thousand men, he was compelled to guard six hundred prisoners. Cornwallis was only twenty-five miles distant; and Tarleton would soon inform him of his disastrous defeat. It therefore behooved Morgan to be on the alert, or all the beneficial effects of his victory would be lost. He immediately crossed the Broad River, and placed his prisoners under the care of Colonel Washington, with orders to move higher up the country and cross the Catawba at the Island Ford. He himself took the direct route to that river.

Morgan's retreat.

Cornwallis was more than surprised, he was thunderstruck, at Tarleton's defeat. He was impatient to pursue the Americans, but was compelled to wait two days at Turkey Creek to collect his scattered dragoons and to receive reënforcements on their way from the coast, under General Leslie. On the 19th he commenced the pursuit of Morgan. Thinking the latter was encumbered with prisoners, Cornwallis turned a part of his army into light troops, and pushed them forward with all speed, while he followed with the remainder. Morgan crossed the Catawba only two hours before the enemy appeared on the opposite bank of the river. That night a heavy rain set in, which so swelled the river that it became impassable. The rain continued for several days, so that Morgan had time to send off his prisoners. Cornwallis's main army was delayed by an immense baggage train which the British commander destroyed in order that nothing should hinder the pursuit. Greene, attended by a single aid-de-camp and a sergeant's guard, set out to join Morgan whose camp he reached on the last day of January. Greene's Fabian policy was to continually tempt his adversary with the prospect of a battle, but always to avoid it; to draw him higher up in the country,

Morgan crosses the Catawba.

Greene takes command.

far away from his base of supplies; and to perpetually harass him by cutting off his convoys and foraging parties.

As the swollen river subsided, the American commander ordered Morgan with his division to march for the Yadkin, and thus gain a day on the enemy. A severe skirmish took place between the British and the American rear guard which had endeavored to prevent Cornwallis from crossing the river. On the 3d of February the enemy reached the Yadkin; but to their mortification they found Greene on the east bank, and all the boats with him on the other side. Again they were delayed, while the Americans marched on in safety until they were joined by the main army under General Huger.

Greene crosses the Yadkin.

It was Greene's intention to honor General Morgan by assigning him to the command of the rear guard; but, that officer being taken sick, the place was given to Colonel Williams who had as subordinates, Howard, Washington, and Lee, all able and energetic officers. Cornwallis crossed the Yadkin twenty-five miles north, at the Shallow Ford, and posted his army at Salem. Greene called a council of war, to obtain the opinions of his officers regarding the advisability of fighting the enemy. But they were unanimously opposed to a battle in the present condition of the army. Cornwallis was superior in numbers, discipline, and equipment; and hence the retreat must be continued.

Greene's next object was to cross the Dan and enter Virginia where he would be in position to receive reënforcements and supplies. But Cornwallis was determined to prevent this movement and force a battle while the American army was between the rivers Yadkin and Dan, and between himself and Lord Rawdon. The British commander was constantly misinformed. He heard that the Dan could not be crossed without boats and that none could be obtained. He therefore pushed forward with all haste to cut off Greene from the shallow fords higher up the river. But the American general, as usual, had fore-

Greene crosses the Dan

seen the contingency and, through his agents, had collected a sufficient number of boats to enable his army to cross in safety. He then took a strong position at the junction of the Dan and Staunton Rivers. He had now twenty-five miles the advantage, with a broad river between himself and the enemy. At last he was in a place of safety with all his prisoners. Cornwallis was extremely mortified; for he had been completely out-generaled.

In this retreat across three broad and rapid rivers, over a wide extent of wild and uncultivated territory, encumbered with prisoners amounting to more than a fourth of his army, Greene exhibited all the qualities of a great general — sagacity, foresight, activity, and indomitable perseverance. Almost any general may fight and win a battle; but to conduct a retreat under such adverse circumstances, keeping his army intact through all its privations and sufferings, proved the truth of Washington's recommendation when he wrote, "I can send you at least a *general;*" and a general was sent "whose head was a council and whose military talents were equal to a reënforcement."

Greene's superior generalship.

Cornwallis perceived that it was dangerous to pursue Greene into Virginia, and thought it wiser to claim the glory of having driven the American army out of the Carolinas, and of having established the authority of the Crown in the Southern States. Resting his troops for a day, he commenced a retrograde movement over the same ground he had covered in the pursuit. Greene, fearing the effect of leaving Cornwallis in undisputed possession of the South, resolved at all risks to reënter North Carolina, even if he were obliged to hazard a battle. He sent a portion of his army, under Pickens and "Lighthorse" Harry Lee, with orders to place themselves in front of the enemy, but always at a safe distance, and cut off his communication with the malicious Tories. Greene remained on the north bank of the Dan with the main body, for the purpose of observing the designs of the British.

Cornwallis's empty glory.

Hearing an exaggerated account that many Tories were flocking to the enemy's standard, the American commander, now reënforced by six hundred militia under General Stevens, recrossed the Dan, resolved at all hazards to put an end to the recruiting of Cornwallis's army. In the event of either defeat or victory, the movement would be a wise and a bold one. He took a position about fifteen miles north of the British, in order to cut them off from the upper counties, to harass them with skirmishes, to cut off their foraging parties, and otherwise to annoy them; in a word, to gain delay until reënforcements arrived from the north. Greene's great military skill enabled him to avoid a general battle. He changed his camp every day or two, and so arranged his troops that Cornwallis fancied that his army amounted to eight thousand men.

Greene recrosses the Dan.

Finally, for the sake of the good cause, Greene determined to risk a battle. He chose a strong position on a wooded hill about a mile south of Guilford Court House. He formed his army in three lines, about three hundred yards apart. The first and second were composed of militia, and the third of Continentals. The enemy advanced against the first line, which simply fired a scattering volley without aim and then fled, some to the woods, and others to the ranks of the second line which opened to allow them to pass. The second line, under Stevens, fought bravely and held their ground until the British reserves charged them with the bayonet, and forced them back on the third line. Greene relied on these troops to retrieve the fortune of the day; and to encourage them he rode along the line, calling on them to stand firm and give the enemy a warm reception. There was desperate fighting on both sides, charges and countercharges of cavalry and with the bayonet. But Greene, perceiving that he could not afford to lose any more of his regular troops, wisely ordered a retreat, which was effected in good order, to his former position at Troublesome Creek. Cornwallis gained nothing but the empty honor of the field. The

Battle of Guilford Court House.

British were so cut up and exhausted that they were unable to pursue the Americans. Cornwallis lost one fourth of his army — a loss which it was difficult to repair. Mr. Fox was not far wrong when he stated in the House of Commons that, "another such victory would ruin the British Army."

The victory of Cornwallis was really equivalent to a defeat; for he was not only unable to follow it up, but was compelled to retreat to a safer position, leaving behind a number of his soldiers too badly wounded to bear the fatigue of transportation. Just as soon as the British commenced their retrograde movement Greene, always on the alert to seize every opportunity to harass the enemy, determined to pursue and, if possible, bring on another battle. He overtook Cornwallis at Deep River; but the British general had taken the precaution to destroy the bridge and put an end to the pursuit.

Greene pursues the enemy.

The American army was small, and, as usual at this period, poorly supplied with food and clothing. The terms of enlistment of many of the militia had expired, and they were so reduced by hardship and privations that they refused to remain any longer. To follow Cornwallis farther toward his base at Wilmington would be madness. But the active and indefatigable American commander could not remain idle. By a bold stroke of military genius he invaded South Carolina, and thus compelled Cornwallis to do either of two things, pursue him, or abandon the State to the Americans. Greene then notified Lee, Pickens, Sumter, and Marion of his plans, and requested them to raise all the militia they could. Dismissing his North Carolina militia with thanks, and resting his wearied soldiers for a few days, he resolved to march against Lord Rawdon at Camden.

Invasion of South Carolina.

In the meantime, Lord Cornwallis continued his retreat to Wilmington; and when he heard of Greene's daring invasion he was extremely mortified. He was unable to aid Rawdon, and he feared the worst should the Americans attack him.

In a vain attempt to play Greene's game, Cornwallis abandoned North Carolina, and entered Virginia, in the hope of compelling Greene in turn to abandon South Carolina. But the American commander was too astute to fall into such an error; and Cornwallis was permitted to march undisturbed into the trap where he was subsequently caught.

Greene finding Rawdon too strongly posted at Camden to warrant an attack, took up a position at Hobkirks Hill, within twenty miles of the enemy, hoping to force a battle on ground of his own choosing. On the 25th of April, Rawdon made an attack, and a severe battle was fought, in which the Americans fell back; but Greene inflicted such damage on Rawdon that he was compelled to return to his intrenchments.

Battle of Hobkirks Hill.

Greene perceiving Rawdon's superiority in numbers and equipment, at first resolved to retreat toward the mountains, in order to refresh and recruit his small army. Learning, however, that the British general had abandoned Camden, he changed his plan, and commenced a series of attacks on the British posts. Forts Motte and Granby were taken; Augusta and Ninety-Six were besieged. The attack on the former failed and the latter was relieved by the arrival of reënforcements under Rawdon. This compelled Greene to retreat to Bush River, twenty miles distant, to observe the enemy's movements. The British general started out with a strong force in pursuit of the Americans; but, as after the battle of Guilford Court House, Greene quickly turned the pursuit into a retreat, and when he overtook Rawdon, he found him too strongly posted to warrant an attack. Hearing that the garrison at Ninety-Six were moving to reënforce the enemy, he retreated to the hills on the Santee where he allowed his soldiers to rest and recuperate after all their weary marches and counter-marches. In the meantime, he sent out Lee, Marion, Sumter, and other able officers to harass the enemy. Lord Rawdon retired from the command in the South and was succeeded by Colonel Stuart.

Attack on British posts in South Carolina.

Neither money nor reënforcements could be sent to Greene, because the Continental bills were worthless, and Washington in conjunction with the French was determined to make a supreme effort to end the war. Greene was, however, full of resources; and he determined to attack the British posts. With his small army he resolved first to drive Stuart behind his works in Charleston.

He overtook the enemy at Eutaw Springs where the last considerable battle of the war took place. Both sides fought with courage and determination. A desperate charge by Colonels Williams and Campbell, drove the British in confusion from the field, some of their troops continuing their headlong flight to within a few miles of Charleston. A portion of the enemy, however, took refuge in a brick house near the field of battle, from which they could not be dislodged without severe loss. So, to save his men, Greene ordered a retreat to his former position.

Battle of Eutaw Springs.

The British had been so badly punished that they fled during the night; and such was their haste to escape that they destroyed quantities of provisions and arms intended for their Tory allies. All the advantages of victory were with the Americans. Greene pursued Stuart to within twenty miles of Charleston, and then forced him to abandon all his posts, and confine himself to Savannah, Charleston, and Wilmington, under protection of his works and war-vessels.

Taking into account the demoralized condition of the army when he assumed command, the slender aid furnished by Congress, the want of money, clothing, provisions, everything, Greene's campaigns against Cornwallis, Rawdon, and Stuart, and his recovery of three great States by the aid of a handful of Continentals, assisted by untrained militia and independent partisans, proved him a general of the first rank whose success under the circumstances was simply marvelous.

CHAPTER XXIV.

THE REVOLUTIONARY WAR — Continued.

"Thus far our fortune keeps an upward course,
And we are graced with wreaths of victory."

Events in Virginia, 1781.

While the energetic Greene was straining every nerve to recover the Carolinas, the traitor Arnold, with sixteen hundred men and some armed vessels, was ordered by Sir Henry Clinton to ravage the coast of Virginia. He landed below Richmond and soon afterwards seized the town. He destroyed great quantities of tobacco and other property, extending his devastations in different directions, and manifesting as much energy in injuring as he had formerly done in serving his country. Washington, fearing that the British might permanently establish themselves in Virginia, the most important of the States, detached Lafayette to check and, if possible, to capture the traitor. At the same time he urged the French stationed at Newport to coöperate with the marquis. Accordingly, the French admiral D'Estouches set sail for the Chesapeake with a considerable fleet and fifteen hundred soldiers. But unfortunately he encountered the British fleet under Arbuthnot off the coast of Virginia. The contending forces were nearly equal, and the action was indecisive. The French, however, returned to Rhode Island; and thus Arnold once more escaped the gibbet.

Malignity of Arnold.

The traitor was superseded in command by General Phillips, who reached Virginia with a force of two thousand men, which, combined with the troops already there, was too formidable to be opposed in the open field by the little army under Lafayette. The Baron Steuben made an attempt to prevent Phillips

from entering Petersburg, but was compelled to retreat. The British then commenced a vindictive and wanton destruction of private property along the coast, and for a considerable distance into the interior. The destruction of public property the British general could justify under the laws of war; but no excuse could be made for the terrible crimes committed against non-combatants. Phillips disgraced his previous good record, on the eve of his death, by these acts of vandalism.

Disgraceful conduct of General Phillips.

In spite of Cornwallis's so-called victories, Greene had in reality driven him to the coast and compelled him to seek refuge in Wilmington. Here he recruited his exhausted army. For some time he was undecided whether to pursue the indefatigable Greene, or form a junction with Phillips and complete the conquest of Virginia. Having "subdued" the Carolinas (as he had proclaimed), he thought he could gain fresh glory by placing Virginia under the British yoke. At the end of April he commenced his fatal march which he performed in less than a month. A reënforcement of fifteen hundred troops from New York and the union of all the forces in Virginia, gave Cornwallis a formidable army of eight thousand men with which to begin the work of subjugation.

Lafayette.

Cornwallis invades Virginia.

Military operations.

Against such a force as that commanded by Cornwallis, Lafayette could accomplish little or nothing. If he could preserve his little army from destruction and annoy the enemy whenever an opportunity offered, he was

doing all that could be expected. Washington directed him to hold the British in Virginia and, if possible, to prevent their escape to North Carolina until he had completed his plan of campaign in conjunction with Rochambeau and De Grasse.

Rochambeau.

While Lafayette, ably assisted by Steuben and Wayne, held the enemy in check and yet skillfully avoided a general action, the American commander in chief commenced a series of movements by which he completely outwitted and out-generaled Sir Henry Clinton. He acted as if he intended to make an effort to capture New York, when in reality he meant to capture Cornwallis. With this object in view he moved his army toward the Harlem River and afterwards a portion of it along the Jersey shore, as if he intended to attack the British on Staten Island. Sir Henry Clinton was so deceived and alarmed by these movements that he collected all his available forces (among them three thousand Hessians who should have reënforced Cornwallis), in order to save New York from the impending assault.

Washington out-generals Clinton.

In the meantime, Washington was secretly and silently moving his army to Philadelphia by one road, while by another road Rochambeau was marching toward the same city. In all these movements Washington proved himself a consummate master of the art of war. The British general never discovered that the siege of New York had been raised until the 2d of September, when the allied army was passing through Philadelphia, where it had been supplied with provisions and military stores by the energy and patriotism of Robert Morris who borrowed money on his own credit. General Heath had been left at West

Patriotism of Robert Morris.

Point with a force of three thousand to observe and report the movements of the enemy.

In the hope of arousing Washington's fears for the safety of New England and diverting him from his campaign against Cornwallis, Clinton sent the traitor Arnold, with a force of seventeen hundred men, on a marauding expedition into Connecticut. He landed at the mouth of the Thames and captured and burnt the town of New London within a stone's throw of his native town of Norwich. The American soldiers at Fort Griswold, after their surrender, were inhumanly butchered. Although Arnold was not responsible for this atrocity, his other acts of cruelty at this time were a fitting conclusion of his infamous career since he sold himself to the enemy of his country.

Arnold's cruelty.

Washington, however, was too wise to be diverted from his purpose by such feeble predatory movements. The allied army pressed forward into Virginia, their objective point being the British army under Cornwallis who had taken a strong position at Yorktown, on the York River. So thoroughly had Washington deceived Cornwallis, as well as Clinton, that the former thinking that he had only Lafayette to contend against, offered to send Clinton reënforcements to enable him to defend New York from a threatened attack. Washington, now commander in chief of the combined French and American armies, gradually and surely cut off the retreat of the British by land, while Count De Grasse prevented their escape by sea. The English admiral Graves made an unsuccessful attempt to break the blockade of the Chesapeake.

Cornwallis hemmed in at Yorktown.

Yorktown had been fortified with seven redoubts and six batteries on the land side. On both flanks it was protected by creeks and ravines. Gloucester Point, on the opposite bank of the river, was fortified and commanded by Colonel Dundas. The safety of Cornwallis depended on the energy and activity of Clinton; but fortunately for the cause of independence this general was slow and indolent, if not stupid.

On the 1st of October, the besieging army amounting to twelve thousand men, exclusive of militia, completely invested Yorktown, forming a semicircle whose extremities rested on the river, and cutting off all communication with the land. On the 6th the first parallel was opened against the enemy, and on the 9th it was completed. Red-hot shot was fired from the French batteries which set fire to the British shipping and many of the houses in the town. On the 11th the second parallel was opened, within three hundred yards of the enemy's works; and on the 14th two redoubts were captured, one by Colonel Hamilton, afterwards the famous Secretary of the Treasury, and the other by the French under the Baron De Viomenil. So eager was Washington to witness the assaults that he constantly exposed himself to the enemy's fire. When one of his officers ventured to warn him of his danger, he coolly replied: "If you think so, you are at liberty to step back."

Siege of Yorktown.

The position of Cornwallis was now desperate. He must either surrender or make an attempt to escape. He formed the bold plan of abandoning his baggage and his sick and wounded, of crossing over to Gloucester Point, of attacking the French troops on that side of the river, and of mounting his infantry on the captured horses, and then cutting his way northward to join Clinton in New York. But a violent storm prevented his carrying out his daring design. No reënforcements reaching him from the north, his guns dismounted, his sick and wounded daily increasing, there was nothing left for him but to surrender.

On the morning of Oct. 17 he sent a flag to Washington, proposing a cessation of hostilities for twenty-four hours, and that two officers be appointed by each side to settle the terms for the surrender of Yorktown and Gloucester. But Washington, fearing that reënforcements might be on their way from New York, would only grant two hours in which to receive such proposals as the British commander might offer. Cornwallis's terms were not accepted.

Finally, after some delay, on Oct. 19, Washington presented the only terms of capitulation to which he would consent. These were that all the ships of war and other vessels should be given up to the Count De Grasse; that all the soldiers should be prisoners to the United States, and all the seamen prisoners to the King of France; and that the officers should retain their side arms, and both officers and men their private property. General Lincoln, who had surrendered Charleston, was selected by Washington to receive the submission of the royal army. It was a terrible blow to the pride and military fame of Cornwallis. But he had no alternative since his failure to escape by way of Gloucester. He was compelled to surrender an army of eight thousand men; on the very day, too, that the tardy Clinton, with seven thousand troops, started for his relief.

Surrender of Yorktown.

When the news of this splendid victory reached the people, their joy was unbounded; for they felt that it virtually ended the war and secured their independence. Congress issued a proclamation appointing a day of thanksgiving and prayer to the Almighty through whose assistance the American people had been able to overcome their tyrant and oppressor.

CHAPTER XXV.

THE REVOLUTIONARY WAR — Continued.

"This hand, to tyrants ever sworn the foe,
For freedom only deals the deadly blow;
Then sheathes in calm repose the vengeful blade
For gentle peace in freedom's hallowed shade."

. . . . . .

"An old affront will stir the heart
Through years of rankling pain."

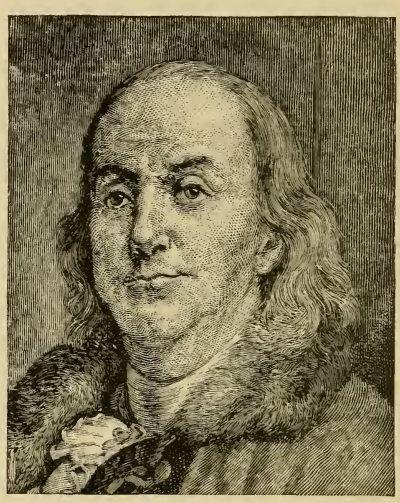
The End of the War.

As far as active military operations were concerned, the surrender of Cornwallis virtually ended the long war of independence. Except for a few desultory raids or skirmishes here and there, the opposing armies had ceased hostilities. The fleet under Count De Grasse had sailed away to the West Indies; the French soldiers under Rochambeau had retired to winter quarters in Virginia; and the American army had resumed the old position at and near West Point. When the news of the great disaster to the British army reached London, George III. and his ministers were struck with dismay. His Majesty urged a vigorous prosecution of the war, although a majority of his subjects were strongly opposed to it. Throughout the protracted struggle there was a powerful party in favor of America. The Puritan descendants of those who defeated Charles I. naturally sympathized with the colonists in their contest for liberty. But sympathy was not limited to the Puritans in England. The elder Pitt, known as the Earl of Chatham, Edmund Burke, John Wilkes, Colonel Barré, and many others were strong and influential advocates of the rights of the American people. The common sense of the people of Great Britain revolted against the mad attempt of the King to coerce half a

British sympathizers with America.

continent. Already blood and treasure had been spent in vain; and the people who furnished the men and the money were heartily tired and sick of the war. Hence there was a general clamor for peace.

On the 2d of February, 1782, a resolution was passed in the House of Commons declaring those who advised a prolongation of the war enemies of their country. The minister's



Franklin.

majority in the House grew gradually smaller, until at last the King threatened that if he was not supported in his tyranny against the United States, he would abandon the country, and retire to Holland. This was a foolish threat, which his Majesty never meant to carry out. Lord North, who had been the King's worst adviser, was driven from office and a new administration friendly to America was placed in power.

George III.'s foolish threat.

Many and serious difficulties arose on account of the complications with France and Spain, America's allies, which were

also at war with Great Britain. A compact had been formed by which it was stipulated that no one of the allies could make peace without the consent of the other two. There was delay about the question whether independence should precede or follow a treaty of peace. There was trouble, too, in regard to boundaries. Great Britain claimed the Ohio Valley and a portion of Maine; and she desired compensation for the losses sustained by her Tory supporters.

Congress appointed four very able men, John Adams, Benjamin Franklin, John Jay, and Henry Laurens, to act with the English commissioners Fitzherbert and Oswald in arranging provisional articles of peace. Finally, after much discussion, a provisional treaty of peace was signed at Paris on the 30th of November, 1782, by which the boundaries of the United States were fixed as follows: on the east the St. Croix River; on the north the St. Lawrence and the Lakes; on the west the Mississippi, which was to be free to both nations; and on the south a line extending from the north of Florida to the Mississippi. The final treaty of Paris was not signed until the 3d of September, 1783. By this treaty Great Britain acknowledged the United States to be free, sovereign, and independent.

Treaty of peace.

Troubles After the War.

In the meantime, during this long delay of two years, the United States had undergone some severe trials. Among these the Vermont difficulty was not the least. It will be remembered that the men of Vermont, known as the "Green Mountain Boys," had proved fearless patriots and rendered excellent service in the cause of independence. They won the battle of Bennington, which was really the decisive blow that paralyzed Burgoyne and ultimately compelled his surrender at Saratoga. For this they deserved something from Congress, and all they asked was admission into the Union. But New York and New Hampshire claimed the territory under old land grants; and the former, aided by the Southern

States, interposed objection. The South did not want a new Northern State without a new Southern State to balance it. The "Green Mountain Boys," under the lead of Ethan Allen, threatened that unless Vermont was admitted into the Union as an independent sovereign State, they would make the territory a British province. The trouble continued until 1791, when Congress admitted Vermont into the Union. Her western boundary was established twenty miles east of the Hudson.

Admission of Vermont.

A long war inevitably leads to demoralization. In 1782 the people were poor. The country, especially in the South, had been devastated. The currency, as already stated, was almost worthless. The army had not been paid, and the families of the officers and men were suffering untold misery. They were almost in a state of mutiny. Sir Guy Carleton, a very able commander, had superseded Sir Henry Clinton; so that if the war should be resumed, Washington would have opposed to him an active and energetic general. The British still held New York, Savannah, and Charleston. The American commander in chief at Newburg, with his poorly equipped and discontented army, could scarcely maintain discipline. Some of his officers urged him to play the part of a Cromwell, march against Congress, and overturn the government.

Troubles with the army.

But the patriotism of Washington triumphed over all difficulties. He soothed the irritation of the army, and prevented a great disaster. Had he been selfishly ambitious during this period of discontent and disorder; had he listened to the suggestions of some of his friends who doubted the ability of the people to govern themselves, he might have ascended a throne established on the ruins of the Republic. One of his officers, Colonel Nicola, a foreigner in the service of the United States, wrote a letter to the commander in chief, in which he pointed out the advantages of the monarchical form of government, with Washington as king. But Washington's decisive and indig-

Washington's patience and patriotism.

nant reply put an end to all hopes in this direction. He had received his commission from Congress, and to Congress he surrendered it, after a splendid service of seven years, such a service as no other man had ever given to an infant nationality, and he quietly retired to his plantation on the banks of the Potomac.

He had previously bidden good-by to the army which had followed him so long and so faithfully; to the officers, to whom he was endeared by a thousand acts of justice, kindness, and generosity. The war was ended, the victory was won. Savannah was evacuated during the summer, New York on the 25th of November, and Charleston in December; so that in the beginning of 1783 there was not a single British soldier from Massachusetts to Georgia.

Evacuation of New York, Savannah, and Charleston.

No sooner were the British armies gone and peace completely established, than serious difficulties arose which threatened the destruction of the Republic. The Articles of Confederation under which the United States had waged a successful war against the mighty power of Great Britain were found inadequate, even in time of common danger, to meet the necessities of the army and the requirements of Congress. Now that the danger of subjugation was removed, the several States, acting as independent sovereignties, opposed the imposition of a general tax to pay the enormous war debt of $42,000,000. In addition to this there were State debts amounting to $20,000,000. For the honor of the Republic, Congress implored the States in vain to pay these debts. So loosely were the States held together, and such was the general disorganization, that Great Britain had strong hopes of reëstablishing her authority over what she called her "revolted colonies." So little attention was paid to Congress, so indifferent had the delegates themselves become, that not infrequently that body was compelled to adjourn for want of a quorum. In fact, the government of the United States was fast falling into contempt at home

The war debt.

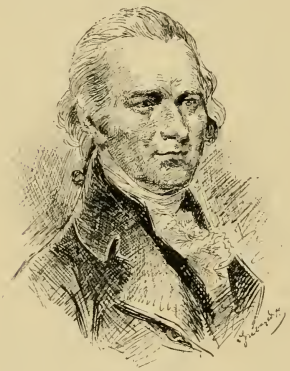
and abroad. Conventions were held in several of the States for the purpose of opposing Federal taxation; and in Massachusetts a number of people, under the leadership of Daniel Shays, arose in rebellion; but they were quickly suppressed by the energetic measures of Governor Bowdoin.

Shays's Rebellion.

Adoption of the Federal Constitution.

Finally, it became apparent to the most obtuse minds that if the United States was to endure as a separate and distinct nation, it could only do so under a stronger and more centralized government than the Articles of Confederation. Alexander Hamilton, who had foreseen this necessity long before the present danger, proposed to call a national convention, to meet at Philadelphia, to consider the condition of the United States, "to devise such further provision as shall appear to them necessary to render the constitution of the Federal government adequate to the exigencies of the Union, and to report such an act for that purpose to the United States in Congress assembled, as, when agreed to by them, and afterwards confirmed by the legislature of every State, will effectually provide for the same." The convention met at Philadelphia, in May, 1787, and was presided over by George Washington, now a delegate from Virginia. Many of the old Revolutionary leaders were present. There were also some new members of remarkable ability, destined hereafter to exercise great influence in shaping the government of the country. Among these were Alexander Hamilton and James Madison.

Alexander Hamilton.



Hamilton.

Gradually, as might be expected, the convention resolved itself into two distinct parties; one favoring a strong centralized government, and the other opposed to it. The latter desired that the State governments should possess larger powers. Under various names of Federalist and Republican, of Whig and Democrat, and of Republican and Democrat, these parties have remained to this day the chief political opponents.

Formation of parties.

The first resolution adopted by the convention was an outline of the future government: "Resolved that it is the opinion of this Committee that a national government ought to be established, consisting of a supreme Legislature, Judiciary, and Executive." The sessions of the convention were secret, and the debates were mainly on two questions — the power of the general government to coerce the States, and the representation in Congress to be proportioned to the population. Naturally the larger States favored, and the smaller States opposed, the latter of these two propositions; but the difficulty was overcome by the establishment of the upper house, or senate, in which every State would have equal representation. The Southern States were satisfied to have three fifths of their slaves counted as a basis of population for representation in the lower house.

Bases of representation.

On the 17th of September, 1787, the Constitution was adopted by Congress, and signed by all the members except three. The several States were then called upon to adopt it in their separate conventions. If nine of the thirteen States should adopt it, it would become the supreme law of the Republic. During the winter of 1787 and 1788 the Constitution was eagerly discussed by the people. Its chief promoters became its ablest defenders. The States one after another accepted it; and in June, 1788, it was adopted by the necessary nine States. Virginia and New York were slow in taking action; but finally they too accepted it. At a later day North Carolina and Rhode Island gave in their adhesion.

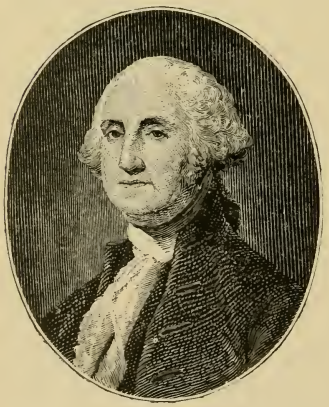
The Constitution adopted.

CHAPTER XXVI.

WASHINGTON'S ADMINISTRATION (1789-1797).

"The world heard: the battle of Lexington — *one;* the Declaration of Independence — *two;* the surrender of Burgoyne — *three;* the siege of Yorktown — *four;* the treaty of Paris — *five;* the inauguration of Washington — *six;* and then it was the sunrise of a new day, of which we have seen yet only the glorious forenoon."

THE first Congress under the new Constitution assembled in New York on the 4th of March, 1789, but for want of a quorum did not organize until the 30th of April. Under the clause providing for a chief executive, George Washington was unanimously chosen President and John Adams Vice President. In taking the oath of office Washington modestly expressed distrust of his qualifications for the exalted position to which he had been chosen, and prayed for Divine guidance in the performance of his arduous duties.



Washington.

The first duty of Congress was to provide ways and means to pay the debts incurred by the Confederation and by the several States, and to arrange for the support of the Federal government. Robert Morris, who had so nobly furnished money to pay the army at a critical period of the Revolution, recommended Alexander Hamilton, a young man only thirty-one years old, for the important post of Secretary of the Treasury. When appointed, Hamilton proceeded at once to

carry out those financial measures which have made him famous. His active intellect conceived the means by which the young Republic could maintain her honor among the nations of the earth.

He recommended that the public lands should be sold; that duties should be levied on the tonnage of vessels and on foreign merchandise imported into the United States; and that measures should be taken to collect the revenue. But the greatest difficulty to contend with was the payment of the national and State debts, now amounting, with the arrears of interest, to the enormous sum, for that period, of $80,000,000. Hamilton's plan, which ultimately prevailed, was to fund the entire debt. This inspired confidence at home and abroad, because it proved that the new government was resolved to pay every dollar of debt incurred by the Confederation.

Hamilton's financial measures.

These measures were not carried into effect without great opposition from the Anti-Federal party which contained a majority of the people; but they were so divided that they were rarely able to present a united front against Hamilton's determined policy. When the Secretary assumed his office there were only three banks in the United States; one in Boston, one in New York, and one in Philadelphia. Of course they were all State banks. After much opposition he founded what was to all intents and purposes a national bank, under private management, with a capital stock of $10,000,000, which would serve the government, as it owned a fifth of the stock. Hamilton recommended a system of protection of American manufactures which was doubtless wise at the time; but he took care to exempt raw material from duty.

Establishment of national bank.

Congress established two departments in addition to that of the Treasury; the department of State, to which Thomas Jefferson was appointed, and the department of War (which included the navy), to which Henry Knox was appointed. These officials were designated as Secretaries and formed the Presi-

dent's council. The Judiciary was also established, with the distinguished John Jay as Chief Justice; Edmund Randolph of Virginia was appointed Attorney-general. The Federal government was now fully and completely organized, and so strongly constituted that it has been able ever since to encounter and overcome every shock, whether from within or without. It is the wisest and the best government ever established by the wisdom of man. In 1790 Congress passed a law fixing the seat of government at Philadelphia for ten years, and then removing it to its present site on the banks of the Potomac.

First Cabinet.

One of the great difficulties that the convention had to meet in the formation of the Constitution was the existence of slavery in the Republic. As previously mentioned, it was introduced by Great Britain in 1620 (the very year that the Pilgrims landed at Plymouth); and slave labor became, in time, the main support of the white population of the South. Congress agreed to abolish the slave trade in 1808; and it was thought that the question would then be forever at rest. But the invention of the cotton gin by Whitney in 1793 imparted a value to slave labor hitherto unknown.

Abolition of the slave trade.

Under old land grants several States claimed ownership of the territory northwest of the Ohio River. In 1784 Congress appointed a committee, with Thomas Jefferson as chairman, to report a plan for its government. The report of the committee recommended the prohibition of slavery, to date from the year 1800. But the Southern representatives temporarily defeated this part of the report. However, in 1787, the celebrated Ordinance was passed devoting all the Northwest Territory belonging to the United States to freedom. From this vast region the great free States of Ohio, Indiana, Illinois, Michigan, and Wisconsin have been formed. The South permitted the exclusion of slavery because it was thought that the soil and climate were not suited to slave

Northwest Territory devoted to freedom.

labor. The inhabitants of this territory were for the most part immigrants who came from New England; and hence their State constitutions were mainly modeled after the plan of that of Massachusetts.

In 1790 an Indian war broke out in the northwest; and, all attempts to restore peace proving futile, General Harmer was appointed to command an expedition for the purpose of reducing the savages to submission. He destroyed large quantities of corn and burned several villages, but was badly defeated in battle. In 1791 he was superseded by General St. Clair, governor of the Northwest Territory; but he, too, was surprised and defeated with great slaughter. The government then appointed Anthony Wayne, the distinguished general of the Revolution, to command a force of three thousand men for the complete subjugation of the Indians. He pursued the campaign with great caution, in order to avoid being surprised by his wily foe. He gave battle to the Indian tribes on the banks of the Maumee, gained a complete victory, routing the savages, destroying their power, and laying waste their country. A treaty was made, in 1795, by which the Indians ceded a large tract of land to the United States; and from that time forward the settlement of the West increased with great rapidity.

Indian war in the northwest.

On the recommendation of Hamilton, Congress passed a bill, in 1791, placing a duty on domestic distilled spirits. Its purpose was to raise money to pay the State debts. The Western and Southern members had fought in vain against its passage, on the ground that, owing to the cost of transportation, it would be difficult for people in these remote districts to procure imported spirits from the East. Besides, it would prevent the farmers from converting their surplus grain into whisky. Numerous meetings took place to denounce and oppose the law; and in Western Pennsylvania the people rose in rebellion, and assailed the revenue officers. Washington clearly

The Whisky Rebellion.

perceived that successful rebellion against one law of Congress might be the beginning of many more and might ultimately destroy the government. He therefore issued two proclamations against the rebels; and these proving ineffectual, he sent out a military force, which quickly reduced them to submission.

Before New York would consent to the admission of Vermont into the Union, the latter was compelled to pay $30,000 for the territory claimed by the former. Although a State government had existed since 1777, Vermont was not admitted until 1791. Kentucky had been settled chiefly by immigrants from Virginia under the leadership of Daniel Boone. During the Revolutionary War they suffered terribly from the depredations and cruelties of the Indians incited and stimulated by the English. Having adopted a constitution in conformity with that of the Federal government, Kentucky was admitted into the Union in 1792. Tennessee had been settled by immigrants from North Carolina. She was admitted in 1796. These two new States were, from the nature of their first settlement, slave States.

Admission of Vermont, Kentucky, and Tennessee.

Washington was reëlected President in 1792 with John Adams as Vice President. At this period the great French Revolution was in progress; and the people of France naturally expected sympathy, if not support, from the United States in return for the assistance they had given to America in her struggle against Great Britain. The French government was unfortunate in its selection of Edmond Charles Genêt for minister to the United States. Early in 1793 he landed at Charleston, and, without even waiting to present his credentials to the administration at Philadelphia, commenced at once to issue commissions to privateers to prey on British commerce. He went so far as to order that the prizes should be tried and condemned by the French consuls in the United States. When opposed by the Federal officers,

Washington's reëlection.

Troubles with France.

he threatened to appeal to the people against the government. He tried also to organize in the United States expeditions against Spanish settlements in Florida; and this, too, in spite of the President's proclamation of neutrality! He was so violent and insolent that Washington was compelled to request his recall. He was succeeded the following year by M. Fauchet who was instructed to assure the United States government that France did not approve Genêt's conduct.

The Federals led by Hamilton and the Republicans by Jefferson, had grown into bitter political opponents. The former inclined toward Great Britain; the latter sympathized with France. Jefferson had become thoroughly imbued with the doctrines of the encyclopedists and advocated the largest liberty for the people. He was strongly in favor of States' rights and opposed to the centralization of power in the general government. The Republican party — greatly in the majority but poorly united, complained that Great Britain had not carried out the terms of the treaty of Paris (1783); that she had failed to return or pay for the negro slaves carried off during the war; that she had made illegal seizures of American property at sea; and that she had not surrendered the military posts on the Western frontier.

In November, 1794, a British *Order in Council*, directing English men-of-war to seize as prizes any vessels found carrying produce from, or supplies to, a French colony, simply added fuel to the flame, and filled the American people with indignation. Congress immediately passed retaliatory measures. There was danger that war would break out between the two nations. Washington, ever calm amid the storm, always wise and prudent for his country, in order to prevent so great a calamity, sent John Jay as envoy extraordinary to England to negotiate a treaty of amity and commerce. The main points of this treaty were: The British would withdraw their garrisons from the Western posts; inland navigation should be free to both

Troubles with Great Britain.

nations (except that the United States should be excluded from the territory of the Hudson Bay Company); The Mississippi should be open to both nations; a commission should determine what was meant by the St. Croix River, and fix the northeastern boundary. The treaty was ratified by the Senate in 1795, and went into operation in 1796.

Tribute to the Dey of Algiers.

It had been a long-established custom for the European nations to pay a disgraceful tribute to the Dey of Algiers, to save their commerce from the cruel pirates that infested the Mediterranean. As the United States had not conformed to this odious custom, the Dey held a considerable number of American seamen as slaves, and treated them with barbarous cruelty. In 1796 a treaty was made with Algiers by which these seamen were redeemed; but America was compelled to agree to pay an annual tribute.

As Washington's second term drew to a close, he made known his desire to retire to private life. He declined to serve a third term. His farewell address to the American people is a lofty political production, warning them of future dangers, and advising them to "seek noble ends by noble means."

Election of Adams.

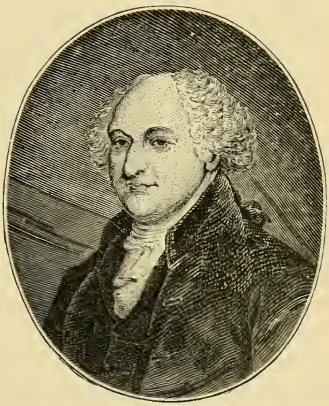
The Federalists and Republicans put forth great efforts in the election of Washington's successor. The former feared French, and the latter English, influence. The Federalists triumphed, and elected John Adams of Massachusetts. Thomas Jefferson was chosen Vice President.

CHAPTER XXVII.

JOHN ADAMS'S ADMINISTRATION (1797-1801).

"Washington effected much in the field; but where were the Franklins, the Adamses, the Jeffersons and the Lees — the band of sages and patriots whose memory we revere?"

THE administration of John Adams was disturbed from its beginning to its close. It was distinguished for the strenuous efforts it made to preserve peace with the two leading powers of Europe then engaged in a deadly struggle. The French government had fallen into the hands of the Directory, under whose administration the Republican generals had gained great victories over the allied armies of nearly all Europe. Inflated with these successes, the French ministers who succeeded M. Genêt were constantly urging the United States government to adopt measures favorable to France. They were supported by Thomas Jefferson and the main body of the Republican party. Political animosity was, at this time, exceedingly bitter. Able men, mostly of foreign birth, had control of the press, and abused and lampooned the government most unmercifully.



John Adams.

To counteract the influence of this class, the administration unwisely passed the Alien Laws. These laws were certainly not in accordance with the oft-repeated statement that

"America was the home of the oppressed of all nations." There were five laws which made the Republican or Democratic party very indignant. First, they extended the term of residence prior to naturalization to fourteen years; second, they empowered the President to send out of the country such aliens as he thought dangerous to the welfare of the United States; third, they gave him the right to grant licenses to aliens to remain in the country during his pleasure; fourth, he might demand a bond for their good behavior; and fifth, masters of vessels who brought aliens into the United States might be fined for failure to report them.

Alien Laws.

The Sedition Law made it a penal offense to defame Congress or the President; to excite the hatred of the people against them; to excite sedition in the United States; to raise unlawful combinations for resisting the laws; or to give aid to foreign nations against the United States. The Alien and Sedition Laws went together, and together they were denounced. They became the rallying cry of the Democratic party; and there is no doubt that they led to the complete overthrow of the Federalists and gave their political antagonists possession of the national government for a period of twenty-four years.

Sedition Law.

England and France continued their deadly war, the former to restore the Bourbon king, and the latter to preserve a democratic government. As a rule, the French were victorious by land and the English by sea. Owing to the blockade of so many European ports, American merchants and ship owners had become wealthy by means of the carrying trade. Her vessels were at liberty to carry merchandise for any of the belligerents, not, however, without some trouble and annoyance.

England, in order to maintain her supremacy on the ocean, was compelled to recruit her navy by the barbarous method of impressment; that is, of seizing peaceful seamen wherever found, and forcing them to serve in her navy. In chasing up deserters, she never scrupled to overhaul and search

American merchantmen, and seize not only her own subjects, but native-born Americans. The United States submitted to these insults rather than engage in a war for which she was but poorly prepared. France, too, exasperated at the failure of the United States to aid her in her struggle for the establishment of Republican government, seized a great number of American merchant vessels, and held them as prizes. She also refused to receive Mr. Pinckney, the envoy from the United States.

Searching American vessels.

The President and Congress tried every means, but in vain, to pacify the French Directory. Pinckney, Marshall, and Gerry were commissioned to renew negotiations with France. On their arrival in that country they were privately informed by "non-official" persons, that if they paid bribes they would be received and treated with due respect; but when received they were expected to advocate an American loan to help the Directory carry on its wars with other nations. When the envoys rejected these disgraceful proposals, they were all ordered to leave the country, except Mr. Gerry, who was a friend of Jefferson.

Troubles with France.

When the news of the treatment received by the envoys reached the people, their indignation was justly aroused. Congress immediately ordered an increase of the army and authorized citizens to convert their vessels into men-of-war and privateers. In fact war already existed on the sea. In the West Indies the American ships *Delaware* and *Constellation* captured a French privateer and a frigate.

Fortunately, however, for both countries, Napoleon Bonaparte overturned the weak and worthless Directory, and brought practical statesmanship to bear to save France from ruin. The First Consul immediately entered into negotiations with the new envoys sent out by the President; and one of Napoleon's first acts was to prohibit French cruisers from interfering with or annoying American merchantmen. This put an end to all apprehensions of war.

War averted.

On Dec. 14, 1799, George Washington died at Mount Vernon. With his death all the bitter abuse he had received as the head of the Federal party ceased. The whole country went into mourning. In an eloquent oration in Congress, General Lee used these memorable words, which are the best eulogy ever uttered concerning the hero, "Washington was first in war, first in peace, and first in the hearts of his countrymen."

Death of Washington.

During the summer of 1800 the Federal government was removed from Philadelphia to Washington. Virginia and Maryland had each ceded a portion of territory to form the District of Columbia which was to contain the Federal capital, and be governed by the Federal Congress.

In the election of 1800 the Federalists presented the names of Adams and Pinckney, and the Republicans those of Jefferson and Burr, for the offices of President and Vice President. The Federal party was defeated, owing chiefly to the unpopular Alien and Sedition Laws. The great majority of the people thought that these laws were opposed to personal liberty and freedom of speech.

Defeat of the Federalists.

Each State was entitled by the Constitution to as many votes as it had representatives in both houses of Congress; and each elector had the right to vote for two candidates. Jefferson and Burr had each an equal number of votes; and the Federalists, who hated the former, managed to continue the tie, thus throwing the election into the House of Representatives where there was a second tie vote. There was danger that the 4th of March would find the country without a President. Finally, after thirty-five ballots, some of the Federalists, overcoming their prejudices, voted blank, and by this means allowed the Republicans to elect Thomas Jefferson as President and Aaron Burr as Vice President. Future danger from this source was prevented by a change in the Constitution.

A tie vote for President.

Election of Jefferson.

CHAPTER XXVIII.

JEFFERSON'S ADMINISTRATION (1801-1809).

"With grave
Aspect he rose, and in his rising seemed
A pillar of state; deep on his front engraven
Deliberation sat and public care."

THOMAS JEFFERSON, the writer of the Declaration of Independence, entertained a strong feeling of affection for France, partly on account of the moral and material aid furnished by the French during the Revolutionary struggle, and partly because his theories of government were mainly formed, as previously stated, by the writings of the celebrated encyclopedists. The Federalists differed widely from him in political opinion; but they were forced to recognize his commanding ability as a popular leader. Like many another radical out of office, he became quite conservative in office when he felt the responsibility for good government resting on his shoulders. His long-standing friendship for France became, at this time, highly important to the United States.

Jefferson.

The free navigation of the Mississippi, and access to the port of New Orleans, were found to be indispensable to the development of the West. It was almost impossible, and certainly unprofitable, to transport the products of the new Western States across the Alleghany Mountains. Spain had recently ceded

to France a territory much larger than the original thirteen States. Napoleon, under the title of First Consul, was the ruler of the French people, and possessed absolute power.

Jefferson was determined to purchase the Isle of Orleans and a free passage to the sea. With this end in view, he directed the United States commissioners to offer the French government $2,500,000. But they were very much astonished when Bonaparte offered to sell all the vast territory from Northern Florida to the Rocky Mountains for $20,000,000. After some haggling the bargain was concluded, the United States agreeing to pay $15,000,000. Napoleon, knowing that the moment the French and English went to war the navy of the latter would immediately seize the territory, was as anxious to sell as America was to buy. How much this purchase conduced to make a great, prosperous, and powerful nation, a glance at the map of the United States will clearly reveal to the dullest comprehension.

Purchase of Louisiana.

As previously stated, the United States had made a treaty with Algiers, by which it was agreed to pay $40,000 for the release of thirteen American seamen who were held as slaves, and also an annual tribute of $25,000 to save the commerce of the United States from piracy. Delay in the payment caused the Dey of Algiers to declare war against the United States. Of course there could be little or no fighting by land. But the fighting by sea was often desperate and brilliant, and American officers and seamen evinced great skill and valor. It was in this rough school that they learned how to defeat the English at sea a few years later.

Trouble with Algiers.

In 1803 Commodore Preble was in command of the Mediterranean squadron. With four vessels of his fleet he entered the harbor of Tangier, and demanded satisfaction from the Emperor of Morocco for the act of his governor in fitting out a cruiser to prey on American commerce. The emperor disavowed the act, and the treaty between the United States and Morocco was renewed.

The *Philadelphia*, in chasing a blockade-runner, struck upon a rock in the harbor of Tripoli, and was abandoned by Captain Bainbridge. In order to prevent so valuable a prize from remaining in the hands of the enemy, Lieutenant Decatur, in a small vessel named the *Intrepid*, boarded the *Philadelphia*, surprised the Tripolitan crew and either slew or cast them into the sea. The frigate was then set on fire, and the daring Decatur returned in safety to the squadron. There were a great many sea fights; and though the Americans were generally victorious, the results were not decisive. Although Tripoli was frequently bombarded, it was not taken. Its ruler was a usurper. He had deposed his elder brother, Hamet, and driven him into exile. Mr. Eaton, who was United States consul at Tunis, entered into an alliance with the deposed sovereign; and collecting a small force, consisting of seventy American seamen, the followers of Hamet, and a few Egyptian soldiers, he commenced a long and difficult march of a thousand miles through a desert country from Alexandria to Tripoli. He captured Derne, a Tripolitan city, by assault; he fought two successful battles and compelled the Bashaw to sue for peace. The conditions being satisfactory to the Americans, a treaty was concluded. One of the terms was the abolition of tribute money. Hamet, however, was not restored to his sovereignty.

War with Tripoli.

In 1803 Ohio was admitted into the Union as a free State. The first settlement was begun in 1788 at Marietta, under Rufus Putnam. Owing to constant wars with the Indians, its growth was slow. But after their defeat by General Wayne, the population rapidly increased by emigration from Europe, and more particularly from New England.

Admission of Ohio.

Aaron Burr, the Vice President, had lost his popularity with the Republican party on account of his intense selfishness. In order to retrieve his political fortunes, he made an effort to have himself elected Governor of New York. To be successful he needed the assistance of the Federalists. Hamil-

ton, knowing Burr to be utterly unscrupulous, bitterly opposed him. This opposition led to an angry dispute. Burr challenged Hamilton to fight a duel. The latter unwisely and unfortunately accepted the challenge and was mortally wounded. The whole country deplored the death of the great financier and true patriot.

Duel between Hamilton and Burr.

At the close of this year, 1804, Jefferson was reëlected President, and George Clinton of New York Vice President.

Burr finding himself very unpopular, engaged, in 1806, in a treasonable conspiracy to detach the territory west of the Alleghanies from the United States and erect it into a separate nation with its capital at New Orleans. Failing in this, he had a second design. He would invade Mexico, and establish an empire. By his powers of cunning and intrigue he was able to seduce many well-meaning men to espouse his cause. But the majority of the people living in these wild regions remained loyal to the United States. Burr's means were totally inadequate to accomplish his ambitious ends. He was arrested and tried at Richmond for treason, but was acquitted, partly for lack of evidence, and partly because the acts of treason were committed outside the State of Virginia.

Burr's treason.

The rapid rise of Napoleon, his wonderful victories, and his conquest of the greater part of Europe, astonished the world; but if master by land, his unrelenting enemy, England, was mistress by sea. In this condition of things, American commerce reaped a rich harvest. American vessels did most of the carrying trade. And had all Europe remained at war much longer, American merchants would have become the richest in the world. But in May, 1806, the British government, in the most arbitrary manner, issued an *Order in Council*, declaring the ports between Brest and the Elbe to be in a state of blockade. Hence, if any American vessel should be found trading with any of these ports, she was liable to seizure and condemnation.

In retaliation, Napoleon issued the *Berlin Decree*, declaring the British Islands in a state of blockade, and prohibiting all intercourse with them. The British government, by another *Order in Council*, prohibited all coasting trade with France.

Berlin Decree.

While these high-handed measures were destroying the foreign commerce of the United States, an event occurred which aroused the anger and indignation of the American people. This was an unprovoked attack on the American frigate *Chesapeake* by the British frigate *Leopard*, because Captain Barrow of the former refused to surrender several seamen deserters from the English navy. The *Chesapeake* was disabled by an unexpected fire from the *Leopard;* and while in this condition the British seized the seamen in question, two of whom proved to be American citizens. This outrage compelled the President to order all British vessels to leave American waters, and to forbid them to enter until the English government had rendered satisfaction. Mr. Monroe, the minister at the court of St. James, was instructed to demand reparation and security against future impressment from American vessels. Canning, the British minister, was willing to negotiate about the particular attack on the *Chesapeake*, but refused to conjoin with it the general matter of impressment.

Seizure of American seamen.

Congress was summoned to meet on the 27th of October. In his message, the President informed that body that he had declined to sign a treaty negotiated by Monroe and Pinckney with the English government, because it made no provision against impressment. He described the outrage on the *Chesapeake*, and spoke of his proclamation forbidding British vessels to enter American waters. In the meantime, Congress set to work to put the country in a state of defense. An act was passed appropriating nearly $3,000,000 to arm and equip one hundred thousand militia, for building one hundred and eighty-eight gunboats, for constructing, repairing, and completing the fortifications, and for increasing the regular army by nearly

Congress prepares for war.

seven thousand men. Congress also passed an act laying an embargo on all vessels within the jurisdiction of the United States.

On the 11th of November, 1807, England issued her third *Order in Council*, declaring all nations at war with Great Britain — all places from which the British flag was excluded — to be in a state of blockade. Napoleon retaliated with his *Milan Decree*, issued on the 17th of December, 1807, by which he declared every vessel denationalized that submitted to search by a British ship, and every vessel a good prize that sailed to or from Great Britain or any of her colonies.

Negotiations were carried on between the American government and Mr. Rose, the English envoy, but without result, as neither side would yield. The embargo, having failed of its purpose, was repealed. Congress then passed an act forbidding trade or intercourse with France and England.

Election of Madison.

Jefferson's second term expired on the 3d of March, 1809; but following Washington's example, he declined to serve a third term, and was succeeded by James Madison of Virginia, with George Clinton of New York as Vice President.

CHAPTER XXIX.

MADISON'S ADMINISTRATION (1809-1817).

"Take heed
How you awake our sleeping sword of war;
We charge you in the name of God take heed."

BEFORE his election to the presidency, Madison had held several Federal positions, the most important being that of Secretary of State under Jefferson. He had taken a leading part in the construction of the Constitution. His mind, if not brilliant, was calm and judicial. Perceiving that the United States was not prepared for war and fearful of its results, he did all in his power to maintain peace. England was "mistress of the seas," her navy the most powerful in the world. Jefferson had been opposed to the increase of the American navy and to the maintenance of a large standing army. Madison was his disciple; but a new and a younger element had entered Congress which the President was unable to control, and which became imperative in its demands for satisfaction from Great Britain.

Madison.

The British minister sent Mr. Erskine to the United States to adjust the difficulties between the two countries. As the Non-intercourse Act had placed France and England on an equality, the British government, under a liberal administra-

tion, was ready to enter into negotiations with the United States. Mr. Erskine felt himself authorized to declare that the *Orders in Council*, the source of all the trouble, would be withdrawn, as regards America, on the 10th of June, 1809, if commercial intercourse was reëstablished. The President, on the strength of this declaration, issued a proclamation removing all obstacles to free intercourse between the two nations. This was followed by general rejoicing, especially in New England and New York, whose commerce for several years had been very much crippled.

Proposed settlement of difficulties.

However, in the meantime, the Tories, the bitter enemies of America, had come into power; and one of their first acts was to declare that Mr. Erskine had exceeded his authority, and they refused to ratify his acts. Then Madison issued another proclamation renewing non-intercourse with Great Britain. Mr. Erskine was recalled, and Mr. Jackson, who had insulted the President, succeeded him. The American government refused to have anything to do with him, but no envoy was appointed in his place; and thus the two nations were allowed to drift into war. Various friendly propositions were offered by Napoleon, always with the proviso that England withdrew the *Orders in Council;* but England, adhering to her arbitrary measures, no benefit accrued to the United States.

Recall of Mr. Erskine.

While these strained relations existed between the two countries an engagement occurred between the sloop of war *Little Belt*, commanded by Captain Bingham, and the United States frigate *President*, commanded by Commodore Rogers, which tended to precipitate the war. Commodore Rogers, finding the *Little Belt* on American waters, hailed her, and for reply the *President* was fired at. The American answered with a broadside which killed eleven and wounded twenty-one men on board the British vessel. As the English captain was the aggressor, a court of inquiry sustained the conduct of Captain Rogers.

The Little Belt.

CHAPTER XXX.

THE WAR OF 1812.

"War, war is still the cry—
'War even to the knife.'"

Events of 1812.

Tecumseh, an Indian chief of considerable ability, assisted by his brother, the "prophet," and urged on by British agents, roused the Indians on the northwestern frontier to wage war against American settlers for the recovery of lands of which they had been dispossessed. General Harrison, the governor of the Indiana Territory, found it necessary to establish a military post at Terre Haute, on the upper waters of the Wabash. An attempt at negotiation having failed, Harrison, at the head of two thousand men, marched against the Indian town on the Tippecanoe. Here he was desperately assailed before daylight on the morning of the 7th of November, 1811; and, notwithstanding the darkness and the fury of the assault, the savages were repulsed. The next day the Indian town was taken and destroyed.

Battle of Tippecanoe.

On the 29th of November, 1811, the President called Congress together, and, in his message to that body, declared that hostilities with Great Britain were imminent. He advised them to put the country in a state of defense. In conformity with this advice, Congress passed several bills. In April, 1812, an act was passed laying an embargo for ninety days on all vessels within the jurisdiction of the United States. On the 4th of June, a bill was passed by the House of Representatives declaring war against Great Britain. It passed the Senate on the 17th, and on the 18th it received the President's signature. The Committee on Foreign Relations in their

Declaration of war with Great Britain.

report assigned the following reasons for an appeal to arms: the impressment of American seamen by Great Britain; the blockade of the ports of England's enemies, thereby plundering American commerce on every sea, and cutting off American productions from their legitimate markets; and finally, the *Orders in Council.*

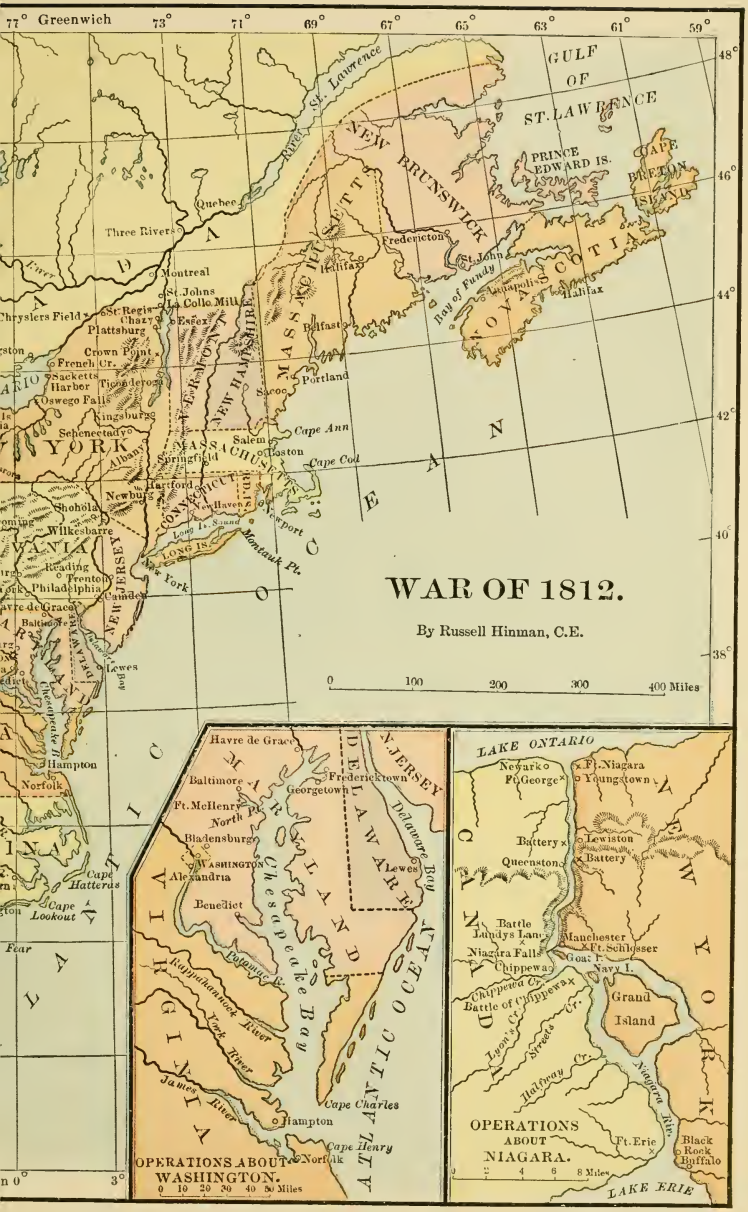
Congress passed an act to add twenty-five thousand men to the regular army, which was very small; it also passed another act authorizing the President to accept the services of fifty thousand volunteers, and to call out one hundred thousand militia for the defense of the coast and the frontiers. But armies without generals are almost useless. The great commanders of the Revolutionary period were dead. The survivors were old men without force or activity. One of these, Henry Dearborn of Massachusetts, was appointed commander in chief; and another, still more feeble, to say the least, General Hull, was governor of Michigan Territory when war was declared. The latter, at the head of two thousand men, marched from Ohio to Detroit, for the purpose of putting an end to Indian hostilities on the northwestern frontier.

Hull crossed the Detroit River with the intention of taking Fort Malden. The enemy, in the meantime, surprised and captured Fort Mackinaw. Major Van Horn, who had been sent with a detachment to guard a supply train, was defeated at Brownstown by a force of British and Indians. General Hull, who had remained inactive on the Canada side for nearly a month, suddenly recrossed the river, on the night of August 7th, and occupied Detroit. He detached Colonel Miller, with several hundred men, to accomplish the purpose in which Van Horn had failed. Miller encountered and defeated a large force of British and Indians, under the command of the celebrated chief Tecumseh.

Hull's surrender.

General Brock, the English commander, crossed the river on the 16th of August, a few miles above Detroit, with a small force of regulars and savages, and marched against the

97° 95° 93° 91° 89° 87° 85° 83° Long. 81° West
48° 46° 44° 42° 40° 38° 36° 34° 32° 30°
LAKE SUPERIOR
LAKE MICHIGAN
LAKE HURON
LAKE ERIE
INDIANA TERRITORY
MICHIGAN TERRITORY
ILLINOIS TERRITORY
MISSOURI TERRITORY
MISSISSIPPI TERRITORY
LOUISIANA
INDIANA
OHIO
KENTUCKY
TENNESSEE
GEORGIA
SOUTH CAROLINA
NORTH CAROLINA
VIRGINIA
EAST FLORIDA (Spanish)
GULF OF MEXICO
Sault Ste. Marie
Ft. Mackinaw
Green Bay
Mississippi River
Michigan River
Georgian Bay
York
Toronto
Ft. George
Ft. Erie
Detroit
Brownstown
Frenchtown
Ft. Malden
Sandwich
Perrys Victory
Erie
Ft. Dearborn
Ft. Miami
Ft. Meigs
Ft. Stephenson
Kirtland
Cleveland
Meadville
Pittsburg
Wheeling
Beaver
Nauvoo
Illinois River
Tippecanoe
Ft. Wayne
Missouri Riv.
Alton
St. Louis
Cahokia
Kaskaskia River
Wabash River
Vincennes
Clarksville
Louisville
Lexington
Dayton
Chillicothe
Zanesville
Waterford
Cincinnati
Columbia
Marietta
Gallipolis
Ohio River
Wilkinsonville
New Madrid
Arkansas River
Mississippi River
Clarksville
Cumberland River
Nashville
Knoxville
Holston River
Tennessee River
Lynchburg
Danville
Abingdon
Loudoun
Vicksburg
Ft. Strother
Tallushatchee
Talladega
Emuckfau
Tohopeka
Ft. Jackson
Autossee
Ft. Toulousebec
Eccanachaca
Ft. Claiborne
Natchez
Ft. Adams
Ft. Stoddard
Ft. Mimms
Mobile
L. Pontchartrain
New Orleans
Ship Is.
Bayou Boyer
Pascagoula
Ft. Baraneas
Tombigbee River
Alabama River
Coosa River
Chattahoochee R.
Flint River
Ocmulgee R.
Savannah River
Pedee R.
Columbia
Augusta
Camden
Charleston
Port Royal
Savannah
Louisville
Darien
Brunswick
St. Marys River
St. Augustine
Long. 7° West 5° from 3° We
15° 13° 11° 9°


77° Greenwich
73°
71°
69°
67°
65°
63°
61°
59°
48°
46°
44°
42°
40°
38°
GULF OF ST. LAWRENCE
St. Lawrence River
NEW BRUNSWICK
PRINCE EDWARD IS.
CAPE BRETON ISLAND
NOVA SCOTIA
Quebec
Three Rivers
Montreal
Fredericton
St. John
Halifax
Annapolis
Bay of Fundy
St. Johns
La Colle Mills
Chryslers Field
St. Regis
Chazy
Plattsburg
Essex
Belfast
Crown Point
French Cr.
Sackets Harbor
Ticonderoga
Oswego Falls
Kingsburg
Portland
Saco
Schenectady
Albany
Cape Ann
Salem
Springfield
Boston
Cape Cod
Newburg
Hartford
New Haven
Newport
Shohola
Wilkesbarre
Long Island Sound
Montauk Pt.
Reading
Trenton
Philadelphia
New York
Camden
Havre de Grace
Baltimore
Lewes
Hampton
Norfolk
Cape Hatteras
Cape Lookout
Fear
Georgetown
Frederickstown
Delaware Bay
Ft. McHenry
North
Bladensburg
WASHINGTON
Alexandria
Benedict
Chesapeake Bay
Potomac R.
Rappahannock River
York River
James River
Cape Charles
Hampton
Norfolk
Cape Henry
OPERATIONS ABOUT WASHINGTON.
0 10 20 30 40 50 Miles
LAKE ONTARIO
Niagara
Ft. Niagara
Youngstown
Queenston
Battery
Lewiston
Battle Lundys Lane
Manchester
Ft. Schlosser
Goat I.
Niagara Falls
Chippewa
Navy I.
Chippewa Cr.
Battle of Chippewa
Grand Island
Lyon's Cr.
Streets Cr.
Halloway Cr.
Niagara R.
OPERATIONS ABOUT NIAGARA.
Ft. Erie
Black Rock
Buffalo
0 2 4 6 8 Miles
LAKE ERIE
WAR OF 1812.
By Russell Hinman, C.E.
0 100 200 300 400 Miles

American works. He demanded the surrender of the town. Hull was strongly posted and his arrangements for a defense were excellent. The Americans were awaiting the order to fire on the enemy, when, to their extreme mortification, the white flag of submission was suspended from the walls. This disgraceful surrender created a feeling of deep indignation throughout the country. General Hull was tried by court-martial and sentenced to be shot; but on account of his age and previous services he was pardoned by the President. His name, however, was stricken from the rolls of the army.

In the fall of 1812 the American army was composed of three divisions: that of the northwest, under General Harrison; that of the center at Lewistown on the Niagara River, under General Stephen Van Rensselaer; and that of the north at Plattsburg, under General Dearborn. A detachment of a thousand men, under Colonel Solomon Van Rensselaer, crossed the Niagara on Oct. 13, and drove the enemy from Queenstown Heights. But the British being reënforced by General Brock with six hundred regulars, the Americans were compelled to retreat to the river, where, being also reënforced, they charged the enemy and drove them in confusion from the Heights.

Battle of Queenstown Heights.

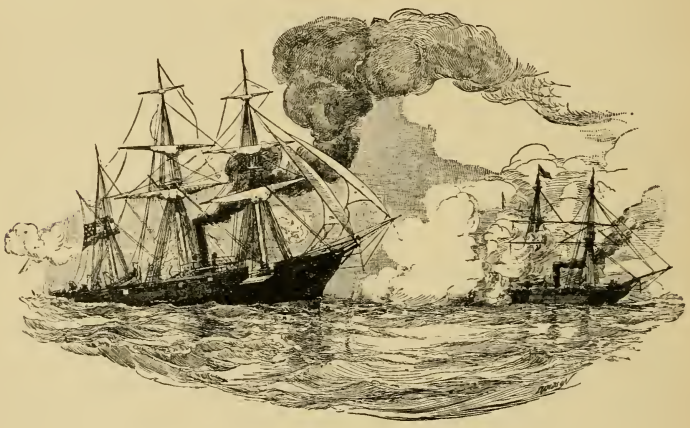
In an effort to recover lost ground, General Brock was mortally wounded. As the American troops on the Canada side were not supported by a considerable force, which refused to cross the river, they were compelled to surrender and lose what might have been a splendid victory. The excuse was that they enlisted not to invade another country, but to defend their own; and, strange as it may seem, their conduct was vigorously defended by many of the Federalists who were opposed to the war.

Although the invasion of Canada resulted in failure and disaster, owing mainly to the inefficiency of the superior officers, the series of brilliant victories on the ocean was an ample compensation. For the first time — at least since the day when Van Tromp swept the Channel with a broom

at his masthead — England was defeated on her chosen element. Her blood-red flag fell beneath the stars and stripes of a young nation.

The first blow she received was the capture of one of her frigates, the *Guerrière*, commanded by Captain Dacres. In an action of thirty minutes the American frigate *Constitution*, commanded by Captain Isaac Hull, so riddled the British frigate that she was compelled to surrender. The next day she was set on fire and destroyed. The Americans lost fourteen men; the British seventy-nine. The *Constitution's* guns were a trifle superior to

Capture of the Guerrière.



Sea Fight.

those of the enemy; but the victory was gained by superior handling and better seamanship. So elated was the country with this victory, that Congress voted a gold medal for Captain Hull, and $50,000 for his officers and seamen.

One of the most desperate actions on record took place between the American sloop of war *Wasp*, commanded by Captain Jones, and the British brig *Frolic*, commanded by Captain Whinyates. At the time of the engagement the sea was very rough. The English fired as their vessel rose, and conse-

quently the shot went either harmlessly over the *Wasp*, or struck her spars and rigging. The Americans, on the contrary, fired as their vessel fell, and hence inflicted great injury on the enemy. So terrible was the damage, that when the Americans boarded the *Frolic* they found but the man at the wheel and three officers, who immediately surrendered. Both vessels, however, were captured the same day by the *Poictiers*, a British seventy-four gunship.

Capture of the Frolic.

On the 25th of October, the American frigate *United States*, of forty-four guns, commanded by Commodore Stephen Decatur, after an action of nearly two hours, captured the frigate *Macedonian*, of forty-nine guns, off the Western Isles. The British loss was one hundred and four men, that of the Americans but twelve. So little was the *United States* injured, that a return to port was unnecessary.

Capture of the Macedonian.

Toward the end of December the *Constitution*, commanded by Commodore Bainbridge, gained a complete victory over the British frigate *Java*, whose captain was mortally wounded in the action. The *Java* was so severely shattered that the Americans were compelled to burn her.

Capture of the Java.

Besides the brilliant actions of the American navy, many American privateers rendered the country excellent service by preying on British commerce. These fast-sailing vessels not only attacked merchantmen, but sometimes even the armed cruisers of the enemy. Three hundred merchant vessels and three thousand prisoners were brought into American ports within a period of six months.

American privateers.

Events of 1813.

General Harrison, the governor of the Northwest Territory, was resolved to recover, if possible, Detroit and Malden. His army had been largely recruited during the winter by young men from Kentucky. The advance column under Gen-

eral Winchester, was attacked by fifteen hundred British and Indians under General Proctor, at Frenchtown on the river Raisin; and although outnumbered two to one by the enemy, the Americans fought with great courage until the order came from Winchester to surrender. The American general had been taken prisoner, and, fearing the bloodthirsty Indians, he obtained a promise from Proctor to protect all who surrendered. The British general treacherously violated his word of honor, and inhumanly allowed the unarmed Americans to be tomahawked, scalped, and even tortured by the cruel savages.

Battle of Raisin.

General Harrison, hearing of the defeat and capture of the force under Winchester, constructed a fort at the rapids of the Maumee, which he named Fort Meigs. Proctor demanded its surrender, which Harrison refused. The British general tried to frighten the Americans with his usual threat of letting loose his savage Indian allies in case he succeeded in capturing the fort by force of arms. Harrison, in the meantime, hurried forward reënforcements under General Clay, who vigorously attacked the enemy, spiked some of their guns, and compelled them to raise the siege.

Shortly after this Proctor and the Indian chief Tecumseh, now raised to the rank of a brigadier general, at the head of five thousand British and savages, attacked Fort Stephenson, commanded by Major Croghan, a young Kentuckian only twenty-one years old. He had only one hundred and sixty men and one gun with which to hold at bay a force so vastly superior. But right nobly did he do his duty. When summoned to surrender, under threat of massacre, he boldly replied that when the fort should be taken there would be none left to be killed. The enemy attacked him simultaneously on two sides. Croghan charged his single gun to the muzzle, and masked it. He then waited until the British had leaped into the north ditch. At the right moment the discharge from the gun killed almost every man of the assailants. The second attacking

Victory of Major Croghan.

column met a similar fate; after which, a severe volley of musketry from the fort caused the enemy to retreat in confusion. Proctor was badly defeated, and compelled to abandon the siege.

On the 4th of March, 1813, Madison entered on his second term. He had been reëlected by a large majority over DeWitt Clinton of New York. George Clinton was again chosen Vice President, but he died shortly afterwards and was succeeded by Elbridge Gerry.

Madison's second term.

It became evident to both the belligerents that the command of Lakes Erie and Ontario was necessary to success. If either side should gain control on these waters, incalculable injury could be inflicted on the other. Hence, in the beginning of 1813 preparations were made by both nations to secure possession of the Great Lakes. In April, General Dearborn determined to attack York (now Toronto), for the purpose of securing the stores there collected. General Pike commanded the land forces, and Commodore Chauncey the naval. On the 27th, the Americans landed within two miles of the town. The British, under General Sheaffe, made an attempt to oppose them; but they were driven back in confusion behind their fortifications. In pursuing the enemy, and when within a short distance of the garrison, a magazine prepared for the purpose exploded, and killed or wounded two hundred Americans, among whom was General Pike who was fatally injured. But notwithstanding this disaster, York, the capital of Upper Canada, was captured, and with it a large quantity of military stores. The Americans held the town for four days, burned the government buildings, and then returned to Sacketts Harbor.

Capture of York.

During the spring and summer the war was carried on with varying and unsatisfactory results. An unsuccessful attack was made on Sacketts Harbor by General Prevost; an attack by the British on Fort George proved a failure; and, on the whole, the campaign under the aged General Dearborn was inglorious.

War on the Canadian border.

With great energy Captain Perry manned and equipped a squadron of nine vessels, carrying fifty-four guns, and set sail in search of a British squadron consisting of six vessels, mounting sixty-three guns. On the 10th of September the two fleets met at Put-in-Bay, at the western extremity of Lake Erie, where a furious action took place, in which Perry was completely victorious.

In the beginning of the battle Perry's flagship, the *Lawrence*, unsupported, owing to light winds which prevented the other vessels from coming to his assistance, was attacked at the same time by two ships of the enemy. But notwithstanding the fearful odds, the heroic Perry fought for two hours, until only four or five of his crew remained fit for duty, and until the *Lawrence* was so disabled as to be utterly unmanageable. In this desperate condition, amid the fire of the enemy, he left the wreck in an open boat, and reached one of his vessels, the

Perry's victory on Lake Erie.

Perry on Lake Erie.

Niagara, in safety. In reporting his glorious victory to General Harrison, he used the memorable words, "We have met the enemy, and they are ours."

Perry's splendid victory opened the way for General Harrison to recover Detroit and Malden. He sent Colonel Richard M. Johnson by land against the former, while he himself embarked on board the fleet to attack the latter. When Harrison arrived he found that Proctor had destroyed Malden and withdrawn his force, with the intention of retreating to Niagara. Being hotly pursued by the Americans, he made a stand about forty miles up the Thames River. Here the British regulars were routed, and fled from the field in confusion. The Indians, however, under Tecumseh, fought with undaunted bravery until the death of their great chief. Then losing all hope, they too fled from the field; and Harrison gained a complete victory, which gave the Americans all the territory lost by Hull's surrender.

Battle of the Thames.

General Wilkinson, another incompetent soldier, was called from the Department of the South to command the army of the North. His purpose was to invade Canada once more, and capture Montreal. The American force, not including Harrison's little army, amounted to twelve thousand men, eight thousand stationed at Niagara, and four thousand at Plattsburg, under General Hampton. The plan adopted was to descend the St. Lawrence, passing the British forts above, and form a junction with Hampton at a point agreed upon. But disaster everywhere attended the expedition. The weather was unfavorable. Some of the vessels were driven ashore, and others sunk. At Williamsburg an indecisive battle took place. A council of war was held, at which an abandonment of the project was recommended. Wilkinson then ordered a retreat, and the army went into winter quarters.

Failure to capture Montreal.

The want of energy and enterprise on the part of Wilkinson and Hampton left the British commander free to do what he pleased. General Drummond turned his attention to the military on or near the Niagara River. He appeared before Fort George, whose garrison fled to Fort Niagara without a

struggle. In their flight they wantonly set fire to the village of Newark. A few days later Fort Niagara was captured by the enemy, and the garrison were put to the sword. The British destroyed Youngstown, Lewiston, Manchester, Tuscarora, Black Rock, and Buffalo.

Burning of towns.

In the second year of the war the Americans were not as successful as in 1812. Although victories and defeats were nearly evenly divided, yet, on the whole, the advantage was with the United States. In addition to Perry's splendid victory, already mentioned, the American sloop of war *Hornet* captured the British brig *Peacock;* and the brig *Enterprise* captured the British brig *Boxer* off the coast of Maine. In this action both commanders were killed, and buried side by side.

Capture of the Peacock and Boxer.

On the other hand, Captain Lawrence, who had been promoted to the command of the frigate *Chesapeake* because of his capture of the *Peacock*, unwisely accepted a challenge from Captain Broke of the British frigate *Shannon* to come out of Boston Harbor and fight him. Broke had a picked crew, while that of Lawrence was very inferior. Besides, the latter was poorly prepared for action; and yet, under the circumstances, he could hardly avoid the acceptance of the challenge. On the 1st of June, the two vessels met and fought with great fury. In a few minutes every officer on the *Chesapeake* fit for duty was either killed or wounded. A musket ball had entered the body of the heroic Lawrence, and inflicted a mortal wound. When carried below, he issued with his dying breath the order, "*Don't give up the ship.*" This became a by-word in the navy, and was used by Perry on the pennon of the *Lawrence*, which won the victory on Lake Erie (p. 206). On the 14th of August the American brig *Argus*, after a severe fight, was captured by the British brig *Pelican*. American privateers, however, still continued to inflict enormous damage on British commerce on every sea from the English Channel to the Indian Ocean.

Defeat of the Chesapeake.

With a very inadequate naval force, Great Britain declared a "blockade" of the American coast from Montauk Point to the mouth of the Mississippi. Admiral Warren was in command of the Southern squadron. Next him in rank was a vicious man named Cockburn, who devastated the farms and homes of the people living on the shores of Delaware, Maryland, and Virginia. He and his drunken sailors were guilty of crimes that would have disgraced pirates. The inhabitants were non-combatants, and therefore there was no excuse for the horrible treatment they received.

"Blockade" of the American coast.

Tecumseh had been sent from Canada, it is supposed, by his British ally, to rouse by his eloquence the Creek Indians to wage war against the United States. Arms had been placed in the hands of the savages either by the English or the Spaniards. Late in August a thousand Creeks surprised Fort Mims, garrisoned by less than two hundred volunteers. After a severe contest, in which many of the Indians were killed, the fort was taken, and men, women, and children, who had sought refuge within its walls, were inhumanly slaughtered. Out of several hundred but twelve of the garrison escaped.

When General Wilkinson was transferred to the command of the army of the North, he was succeeded by General Andrew Jackson, a man of extraordinary ability and determination. He immediately marched into Indiana Territory, at the head of five thousand Tennessee militia. General Coffee, with nine hundred mounted troops, found and surrounded two hundred Creek warriors at Tallushatchee, and slew them all, not one escaping to tell the tale. At Talledega Jackson killed three hundred out of one thousand. Generals Floyd and Claiborne were equally successful. The Creeks made their final stand at Horseshoe Bend, where they were attacked by Jackson; and although they fought with the bravery of despair, they were utterly defeated, and their power for mischief destroyed.

The Creek War.

CHAPTER XXXI.

THE WAR OF 1812—Continued.

"War is honorable
In those who do their native rights maintain,
In those whose swords an iron barrier rear
Between the lawless spoiler and the weak."

Events of 1814.

The third year of the war opened gloomily for the Americans. The overthrow of Napoleon at Leipsic, and his subsequent banishment to Elba, had released a large number of British veteran soldiers from service on the European continent. England was, therefore, able to reënforce her army in Canada, and to strengthen her navy along the Atlantic coast. To add to the difficulties of the administration, many Federalists in New England and in the Middle States were opposed to the war and unwilling to furnish the means to carry it on to a successful issue. These people were anxious for peace at any price.

Gloomy prospects.

Although Russia had offered her services on several occasions as a mediator, for the purpose of putting an end to the war, England, in her stubborn pride, had persistently refused to accept them. She was unwilling to relinquish her assumed "right of search and seizure." Finally, however, the prince regent, afterwards George IV., agreed to open negotiations directly with the Americans. The commissioners met at Gottenburg. On behalf of the United States were John Q. Adams, Henry Clay, Albert Gallatin, James A. Bayard, and Jonathan Russell; and on behalf of Great Britain, Lord Gambier, Henry Goulburn, and William Adams. The American commissioners were authorized to propose the abandonment by England of the search

Negotiations for peace.

of American vessels and the impressment of American seamen, and to offer in return the exclusion of British seamen from American ships, and the surrender of British deserters.

While terms of peace were being discussed, the war was continued with great vigor. General Armstrong, the Secretary of War, was determined to invade Canada once more. Wilkinson was superseded for incompetency by General Brown. In pursuance of the plan of invasion, Generals Scott and Ripley crossed the Niagara River on the morning of July 2, and surprised and captured Fort Erie. The main body of the Americans, under Brown, arrived the next day, and drove the British down the river to Chippewa Creek, where they were joined by the force under General Riall. Here a severe battle was fought, in which the Americans were victorious, compelling the enemy, after suffering severe loss, to withdraw within their intrenchments. It was in this battle that Winfield Scott manifested the courage and military talents which subsequently made him the conqueror of Mexico.

Battle of Chippewa.

After this defeat, Riall, now deserted by his Indian allies, fell back upon Queenstown and subsequently upon Burlington Heights, where he was reënforced by a large body of troops under General Drummond, who assumed the chief command. The Americans were encamped near the Falls of Niagara. The British were posted across Lundys Lane, with their center resting on a commanding eminence. The lane ran perpendicular to the river. Here, on the 25th of July, was fought one of the most fiercely contested battles of the war. Notwithstanding successful fighting by Scott and Jessup, General Brown, who had just arrived on the field, perceived that no permanent advantage could be gained while the British held the height on which they had planted a battery which swept the American ranks. When Colonel Miller was asked if he could carry this battery by storm, he replied, "I'll try, sir." Under cover of approaching darkness, and of a fence which helped to con-

Battle of Lundys Lane.

ceal his movements, Miller charged up the height, shot down the men at the guns and captured the battery. The British made two fierce but unsuccessful charges to retake the guns. Scott and Brown were both wounded, and the command devolved on General Ripley, who too hastily withdrew with his wounded to Fort Erie, leaving the British the empty honor of regaining their own field of battle.

Siege of Fort Erie.

On the 4th of August Fort Erie was besieged by a large force under General Drummond. On the night of the 14th a sortie by the Americans resulted in the killing and wounding of a thousand of the enemy. A second sortie was made by General Brown, who now assumed chief command, on September 17th; and after some severe fighting the Americans dismounted the enemy's guns and destroyed their advanced works. The British commander, learning that General Izard was advancing with a considerable army to the relief of Brown, raised the siege and retired to Fort George. Soon afterwards the Americans destroyed Fort Erie, returned to Buffalo and went into winter quarters. Although no permanent results followed this third invasion of Canada, there was this advantage: it proved that in courage and military skill the American was the equal of the British veteran who had learned the art of war in Spain and Portugal under the Duke of Wellington.

Sir George Prevost's plans.

Owing to their assumed superiority in naval warfare, the invasion of the United States by way of Lake Champlain was always a favorite plan of attack by the British generals. The withdrawal of the greater part of the army of the North, under Izard, left the way clear for the capture of Crown Point and the infliction of great damage on the State of New York. Sir George Prevost, at the head of a large army of fourteen thousand veteran soldiers, went forth to conquer, with far greater hopes of success than Burgoyne could have had on a similar expedition. On his way to Crown Point he thought it imprudent, perhaps, to leave Macomb in his rear, the more particularly

as the latter was assisted by a fleet of vessels carrying in all eighty-six guns, under the command of Lieutenant MacDonough. Prevost therefore resolved to capture Plattsburg, and destroy the American force stationed there.

But Macomb was not idle. By appeals to the authorities of New York and Vermont, his little army of twenty-five hundred was reënforced by about three thousand militia. With this force — less than half that of the enemy — he retreated across the Saranac, and constructed three redoubts and two blockhouses. The brave Macomb was determined to fight to the uttermost. He was ably seconded by MacDonough, a man equally brave and determined. Prevost made several attempts to cross the river; but each time he was repulsed with severe loss. Then he resolved to await the arrival of Captain Downie with a superior naval force, which he expected would certainly destroy that under the command of MacDonough. In this expectation, however, the British commander in chief was grievously disappointed; for the American, by superior seamanship and better handling of his guns, gained a complete victory, capturing most of the enemy's ships.

Battle of Plattsburg.

During the engagement, which lasted two hours, Prevost made desperate efforts to dislodge Macomb, but utterly failed. Having lost two thousand men in killed, wounded, and deserters, and seeing that his fleet was destroyed, he retreated so rapidly that he left his wounded behind him in Plattsburg. Perhaps he feared the fate of Burgoyne. And thus ended an invasion disastrous to England, but very glorious for America.

The termination of the war with France enabled Great Britain to line the Atlantic coast with the greater part of her powerful navy. Towns on the New England coast were attacked, and, as previously stated, the people living on Chesapeake Bay were subjected to acts of wanton cruelty, perpetrated by savage sailors — acts which would have disgraced even the Creek Indians.

But something even worse, something more disgraceful, took place during the summer of 1814, which brought the blush of shame to the face of every true American patriot. General Ross, in command of four thousand regulars and one thousand marines, landed at a place called Benedict and commenced his march toward Washington. For some unaccountable reason — perhaps because he was panic-stricken — the Secretary of the Navy, Jones, ordered Commodore Barney to burn his flotilla and retreat toward the capital. At Bladensburg a battle, if battle it might be called, was fought, in which Ross was victorious. The militia, under General Wilder, fled almost at the first fire. The marines and seamen, however, under Barney, stood their ground gallantly until overpowered by the weight of numbers. Although the administration had been repeatedly warned of the intended attack, no means were taken to defend the Federal capital. The President and his cabinet fled for safety. Ross and Cockburn entered the town unopposed on the 23d of August, burned the Capitol, the President's house and most of the public buildings. They then cautiously retreated, leaving their camp fires burning, in fear that an indignant people would rise in their wrath and destroy them before they could reach their ships.

Bladensburg.

On the 12th of September, Ross landed at North Point, with the purpose of capturing the wealthy city of Baltimore. In a skirmish with the American militia the British general was killed, and the command devolved on Colonel Brooks who continued his march toward the city. General Stricker took position behind the fortifications, and kept the enemy at bay. In the meantime, the British war vessels commenced the bombardment of Fort McHenry; but they failed to reduce it. The gallant conduct of the garrison and the courage of the militia saved Baltimore from the fate of Washington. The British silently withdrew in the night.

Attack on Baltimore.

While negotiations were pending between the American and English commissioners for the restoration of peace, General

Andrew Jackson encamped at Mobile, which he had recently taken. He had learned that a fleet of sixty vessels, containing fifteen thousand veteran soldiers, under the command of Sir Edward Pakenham, was about to make an attack on New Orleans, and, if successful, gain possession of the valley of the Mississippi. Jackson, with his customary energy, hastened to the threatened city, organized the militia, erected fortifications, and proclaimed martial law. His last act was clearly unconstitutional but necessary; for the first duty of a State is to save itself. Five American gunboats, sent out to watch the movements of the enemy, were captured after a desperate contest, in which the British lost more men than the gunboats contained.

On the 22d of December the American militia surprised a part of the British army about nine miles below the city, and after inflicting a loss of four hundred men, retired in good order. Jackson's entire force amounted to but six thousand men, most of them unskilled and inexperienced; while Pakenham's numbered twelve thousand veterans, who had been victorious on many a European battlefield. But what the American general lacked in numbers and discipline was amply compensated for by his own military skill and courage. He had made excellent preparations to give the enemy a warm reception. He had constructed a ditch a thousand yards long and five feet deep, which he filled with water by opening the levee; and a breastwork of cotton bales, against which the enemy's guns were almost useless; he had planted eight batteries behind his works, with his best gunners and riflemen. He then withdrew within his intrenchments, and calmly awaited the approach of the enemy.

Jackson's famous victory.

On the 8th of January, 1815, Pakenham, confident of success, marched his army over an open plain to the assault. When within reach of the American batteries, Jackson opened on the advancing columns a destructive and deadly fire. But in spite of this the English soldiers continued the advance until

they came within the reach of the American muskets and rifles. But human bravery could not withstand such a fire. The British fell into confusion and fled. While attempting to rally them Pakenham was killed.

Generals Gibbs and Kean by great efforts urged the English to make a second assault; but it failed, like the first. Gibbs was mortally wounded and Kean was severely hurt. The enemy sullenly retired to their camp, and soon afterwards embarked on board their vessels. In this battle the slaughter of the British was terrible. They lost a third of their army in killed, wounded, and prisoners ; while the American loss was only seven killed and six wounded. All things considered, Jackson's victory at New Orleans was one of the most glorious ever gained on the American continent.

As previously stated, a large portion of the Federal party was, from the beginning, strongly opposed to the war. In New England, especially, the Federalists were intensely hostile to the party of Jefferson and Madison, which they considered the embodiment of all evil. They were extremely jealous of the influence of Virginia and the other Southern States in the administration of the government. The war had destroyed the trade and commerce of New England, and its coast had been peculiarly exposed to the depredations of the enemy. So strong was the feeling in Massachusetts against the war, that the State administration refused to furnish soldiers for the invasion of Canada; Connecticut would not permit United States officers to command the State militia.

Finally, Governor Caleb Strong called a special session of the Massachusetts legislature, to be held on the 8th of October, to consider the grievances of the New England States. The speech of the Governor was referred to a special committee, which recommended the appointment of twelve delegates to meet and confer with other delegates from New England, to take measures to secure delegations from all the States for the purpose of revising the Constitution of the United States. The convention met

Hartford Convention.

at Hartford, December 15, 1814. It contained delegates from all the New England States. Its proceedings were carefully watched by the administration at Washington and its friends throughout the country, and by them denounced as a treasonable conspiracy which gave aid and comfort to the common enemy. Unfortunately for the delegates, *they met in secret;* and after deliberating for three weeks, they sent out a report recommending a number of alterations in the Federal Constitution.

But peace was concluded at Ghent, on Christmas Day; and therefore the conspiracy fell to pieces. Fortunately the news of the treaty did not reach America in time to prevent Jackson's glorious victory at New Orleans. Although the people rejoiced at the termination of the war, they were mortified to learn that the very cause for which they took up arms — the impressment of American seamen — had not been yielded by Great Britain. However, as the overthrow of Napoleon had led to a European peace, practically there was an end of the search and seizure of American vessels. Against much disaster and severe loss the United States gained one great advantage, worth perhaps the whole cost of the war — America had beaten England on her own chosen element, and forever destroyed her proud claim to be "mistress of the seas." The victories of Perry and MacDonough and many others proved that in skill and seamanship the bold Briton had at last found his master.

Treaty of peace at Ghent.

Decatur.

While the United States was at war with England, the Dey of Algiers, in violation of the treaty of 1796, extorted from Mr. Lear, the American consul, a large sum of money as the purchase of his freedom and that of certain American citizens then in Algiers. Then as early as 1812 he ordered his pirates to prey on American

commerce; and thus it came to pass that many American seamen had been seized and sold into slavery. These acts of barbarism had been perpetrated by the Dey on the plea that the United States had failed to pay regularly the tribute for exemption from attack by the pirates of the Mediterranean. The American government was bound to protect its citizens; and therefore sent Commodore Stephen Decatur with a strong squadron to demand reparation. On June 15, he captured an Algerine frigate of forty-four guns, and a few days later another frigate of twenty-two guns. He also captured the admiral in command and four hundred men. He entered the bay of Algiers, compelled the Dey to release all American prisoners and to relinquish for the future all tribute from the American government. Decatur then sailed to Tunis and Tripoli, and demanded and obtained compensation in money for treaty violations during the war with Great Britain.

Expedition against Algiers.

United States Bank established.

At the close of the war the financial condition of the country was in a most wretched condition. All the banks, except one in Boston, had suspended specie payments, and the paper money was sold at a large discount. After a great deal of debate in Congress during the winter of 1815 and 1816, an act incorporating the Bank of the United States was passed. Its capital stock was $35,000,000, one fifth of which was subscribed for by the United States; and of its twenty-five directors, five were to be named by the President. Its charter was to continue in force until 1836.

The Federal party had been greatly weakened by its opposition to the war, by its alleged leaning toward Great Britain, and by the resolutions passed by the Hartford Convention. Hence the Democratic party carried the country by an overwhelming majority, electing James Monroe President and Daniel D. Tompkins Vice President by a hundred and eighty-three votes against thirty-four for Rufus King, the candidate of the Federalists.

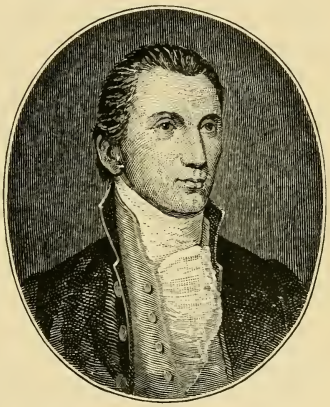
Election of Monroe.

CHAPTER XXXII.

MONROE'S ADMINISTRATION (1817–1825).

"I do not know that Englishman alive
With whom my soul is any jot at odds,
More than the infant that is born to-night."

War is always destructive. While it lasted commerce was almost ruined. Many merchant vessels were allowed to rot in the harbors along the Atlantic coast. As importations declined manufactures arose. But the moment peace was declared foreign merchandise was poured into the country in vast quantities; and of course the foreign merchants were able to undersell all kinds of manufactured goods in the American market. The balance of trade was very much against the United States, and most of the American manufacturers were compelled to close their factories. However, this was not an unmitigated evil, for the capital invested in unprofitable channels was transferred to other industries which yielded a golden harvest. The rich and fertile lands of the West were occupied by immigrants from the East and from Europe to such an extent that the great valleys of the Ohio and the Mississippi were so rapidly peopled and developed that new Territories began to knock at the doors of Congress for admission into the Union.



Monroe.

State of the country.

Vermont, Kentucky, Tennessee, Ohio, Louisiana, and Indiana had been admitted — the last two respectively in 1812 and 1816. Thus three free and three slave States had been added to the thirteen original States. Shortly after the inauguration of Monroe, in 1817, Mississippi was admitted as a slave State; but this was balanced by the admission of the free State of Illinois in 1818. Then came the slave State of Alabama, in 1819, followed by the free State of Maine, in 1820. Since 1791 ten States, five free and five slave, had been admitted into the Union.

Admission of new States.

One of the resolutions passed by the Hartford Convention recommended that no new State should be admitted except by a two-thirds vote of both houses of Congress, and that none but free persons should be represented in the House of Representatives. This was evidently a blow to the spread of slavery, and the beginning of that bitter agitation which culminated half a century later in one of the most gigantic civil wars recorded in history.

When Great Britain was virtually expelled from the United States by the victory at Yorktown, she left behind her the canker of slavery which she had imposed on the country. The invention of the cotton gin by Whitney had made slave labor exceedingly profitable in the South; so that in the course of a few years the planters had grown very wealthy, and maintained a state of living not unlike that of the barons of the Middle Ages. They led a life of ease and luxury, and were therefore in a position to devote their time to the study of politics, for which they manifested a decided aptitude.

Slave labor in the South.

Had slavery been desirable, it was not profitable in the New England States. Hence the little of it that remained when the Federal Constitution was adopted had almost disappeared north of Maryland and Delaware. In 1789 Virginia, the Carolinas, and Georgia claimed the territory as far west as the Mississippi, and into this territory they were permitted to carry the institution of slavery. But the lands beyond the

great river had been purchased by the United States, and belonged to all the people, North as well as South, and all had equal rights therein.

In 1818 the Territory of Missouri sought admission into the Union. As the session of Congress was about to close it was too late to take action that year. Next year, however, a bill was introduced in the House of Representatives to erect the Territory of Missouri into a State. As it lay west of the Mississippi it belonged to all the States, and not to the slave States alone.

Many of the Northern people — especially in New England — looked upon slavery as a sin against God and a crime against man, and commenced a fierce and bitter agitation against its extension. An amendment to the bill proposed by Mr. Tallmadge of New York, that no slaves should be introduced into the State, but that slaves already within it should not be disturbed, was adopted by the House of Representatives. But the Senate voted against it. This defeat sent it over to the next session of Congress. When the country south of Missouri was formed into a territorial government, under the name of Arkansas, an amendment prohibiting slavery within its borders was lost.

Agitation of the slavery question.

In the meantime, the people of the North were thoroughly aroused. In their town meetings and State legislatures resolutions were passed in opposition to the farther extension of slavery. Congress met in December, and the contest was renewed with great acrimony.

Finally the bill of the last session, with some slight alterations, but still prohibiting the introduction of slaves, was passed by the House of Representatives, and forwarded to the Senate. Here a bill for the admission of Maine was attached as an amendment to the bill for the admission of Missouri, evidently for the purpose of soothing the feelings of the Northern people by balancing a new slave State with a new free State.

The two houses failed to agree. There was talk of separation, disunion, and territorial division. The United States was in danger of disruption. Both houses yielded a little, and Missouri was admitted into the Union in 1821, with the *compromise that slavery should be forever prohibited north of the parallel of 36°, 30′.* Henceforth the question of the extension of slavery continued to divide and disturb the people, until it was finally disposed of by the conquest of the South.

"Missouri Compromise" and admission of Missouri.

Many of the defeated Creek Indians, dissatisfied with the provisions of the treaty of 1814, withdrew to the Seminoles, whose territory was partly in the United States and partly in Florida. They carried with them feelings of intense hatred toward the people of Georgia and Alabama ; and when opportunity offered, they killed and scalped the whites with their customary cruelty. Then, in order to escape punishment, they fled to Florida. They were aided and abetted in their acts of violence by certain traders, among whom were two Englishmen named Arbuthnot and Ambrister.

General Gaines, the commander of the district, demanded the surrender of the murderers. The Indians refused. On the contrary, they rose in large bodies, and committed several acts of extreme ferocity. They even besieged Gaines in Fort Scott.

Seminole War.

In the meantime, General Jackson had been directed by the Secretary of War to take the field at the head of such militia as the governors could furnish. Jackson, foreseeing that there would be delay in procuring troops in this way, issued a manifesto calling for a thousand volunteers from West Tennessee to join his standard and march to the rescue of their countrymen. Most of these were the tried soldiers with whom he had gained the glorious victory of New Orleans. As usual, he acted with great promptitude, and did not hesitate to pursue the savages into Florida.

The retreating Indians had taken refuge in St. Marks, a Spanish fort, which Jackson quietly seized and held. On the

Suwanee River he destroyed a large Indian village, and completely broke the power of the Seminoles. Those who escaped fled still farther into the interior. Hearing that the Spanish governor of Pensacola was aiding the savages, Jackson boldly marched against that place, and captured it almost without a struggle. Arbuthnot and Ambrister were captured, tried by court-martial, found guilty, and executed. Many persons in the United States severely condemned these high-handed methods of subduing the Indians; but Jackson was sustained by Congress, and by the President and his cabinet.

Execution of Arbuthnot and Ambrister.

The Seminole War prepared the way for the acquisition of Florida, which gave the United States command of the northern shores of the Gulf of Mexico. On February, 1819, a treaty was concluded between Spain and the United States, by which the latter obtained from the former East and West Florida, on condition that the Americans should assume the claims of her own citizens against Spain, amounting to five millions of dollars; but there were delays and the treaty was not ratified until 1821.

Purchase of Florida.

At the close of his term of office, James Monroe was reelected President, and Daniel Tompkins Vice President, by an almost unanimous vote. One of the first acts of the administration was to send out an expedition under the command of Commodore Porter, to destroy the numerous piratical vessels which infested the West Indies. This work was so thoroughly accomplished that every vessel was sunk, captured, or driven from the islands.

Monroe's reëlection.

Washington's friend and companion in arms, the noble and generous Lafayette, now nearly seventy, visited America in 1824. He wished to witness the growth and prosperity of the Republic he had helped to establish, and the happiness of the people in whose cause he had drawn his sword when he was only a boy of nineteen. Wherever he traveled during his tour of five thousand miles he was received with the highest honors that a grateful people

Visit of Lafayette.

could confer; and on his departure for France, the government, as a final mark of affection and respect, sent him home in a frigate specially fitted up for his accommodation.

The most glorious act of Monroe's administration was the declaration of the "Monroe Doctrine," of 1823. It was brought forth by the conduct of an alliance of France, Russia, Austria, and Prussia, to maintain the "divine right of kings." In pursuance of this object, by means of the military power of France, Ferdinand, King of Spain, was reinstated in his "rights," of which he had been deprived by the Cortes. Emboldened by this success, he asked the Great Powers to aid him in reducing the republics of Mexico and South America to obedience, and placing them again under the Spanish yoke. This the United States resisted.

The "Monroe Doctrine."

President Monroe, in a firm but cautious declaration, stated that in the struggle of the Spanish colonies for independence the United States had preserved a position of strict neutrality, and had since acknowledged their independence. He would, therefore, consider the interference on the part of any European power to oppress any of the republics as an *unfriendly* act toward the United States. In fact, this declaration was equivalent to a notice that the American people would not permit the reëstablishment of monarchy on the American continent.

The bitter political animosities engendered by the positive character of Jefferson, and by the war of 1812, had died out; so that the period of Monroe's administration was called "The Era of Good Feeling." But toward the close of his second term a struggle arose in regard to his successor. There were four candidates in the field, Jackson, Adams, Crawford, and Clay. Though Jackson had the largest vote, he had not a majority in the Electoral College. Hence, by the Constitution, the House of Representatives was empowered to choose. Clay's votes were added to those of Adams, giving the latter thirteen States out of twenty-four, and electing him President of the United States.

Election of J. Q. Adams.

CHAPTER XXXIII.

JOHN Q. ADAMS'S ADMINISTRATION (1825-1829).

"The tears which flow and the honors that are paid when the founders of the republic die give hope that the republic itself may be immortal."

With the election of Adams by the House of Representatives "The Era of Good Feeling" came to an untimely end. The supporters of General Jackson were indignant at his defeat in spite of his having had the largest vote of the people. They were suspicious of the union of Clay's followers with those of Adams; and some of them went so far as to allege that the election was the result of a bargain. This feeling of hostility against the administration was greatly intensified when the President called Clay to the chief office under him — that of Secretary of State. From the character of the two statesmen it is morally certain, however, that the charge of a bargain was made in the heat of political passion, and had no foundation in fact.

John Quincy Adams.

Hostility against the administration.

The animosity of the opposition was based on other and deeper grounds. From the adoption of the Constitution the people were divided into two parties; one believing in a strong centralized government, the other in the sovereignty of the people. Jefferson, Madison, and Monroe, each having held the presidency for eight

years, were the leaders of the party of State rights. Hamilton and John Adams were the champions of the Federal party. All the presidents except John Adams and his son were Southern slaveholders. The people of the South began to look upon the rapid growth of the Northwest with alarm, because they foresaw the admission of free States in sufficient number to check their power in the Senate.

Shortly after the inauguration of Adams, a controversy arose between the Federal government and the State of Georgia in relation to certain lands belonging to the Creek and Cherokee Indians. In 1802 the general government had agreed to purchase the Indian lands for Georgia, on condition that the State relinquished its claim to the Mississippi Territory. Since the compact the Federal government had extinguished the Indian title to fifteen millions of acres, and handed over the land to Georgia. But there still remained over nine millions of acres in the possession of the Indians. The Creeks had become civilized, and now understanding the value of their lands, refused to sell them to the government. They even passed a law inflicting the death penalty on any one who was found selling land. In spite of this law a few of the Indians made a treaty disposing of the territory. The treaty was sanctioned by the Senate the day before adjournment, before it had time to examine it carefully. Thereupon Governor Troup of Georgia ordered a survey of the lands, which greatly exasperated the Indians.

Trouble with Georgia.

The President, fearing hostilities, directed General Gaines to protect the Indians, and Troup to stop the surveys until the meeting of Congress. But Troup was troublesome and insubordinate. The President, however, was firm and determined. Congress finally entered into a treaty with the Indians, by which they were paid large sums of money for their territory which was made over to Georgia. This event, although not important in itself, is remarkable as the first instance of a State government asserting its sovereignty against the power of the Federal government. There were, it is true, rebellions in Massachu-

setts and Pennsylvania. But these were the acts of individuals. The Hartford Convention was an abortive attempt to reform the Federal Constitution.

By a remarkable coincidence John Adams and Thomas Jefferson, who served on the committee to draft the Declaration of Independence — the latter having written it — died on the Fourth of July, 1826, while the people were commemorating the fiftieth anniversary of the greatest moral event of the eighteenth century. Amid the roar of artillery and the general joy the two great patriots departed this life in the fullness of years, and with the love and respect of the whole nation.

Death of Adams and Jefferson.

Toward the close of John Quincy Adams's administration the tariff became the leading question in national politics. The progress of the country in manufactures and agriculture led to a change of opinions, North and South. The people of New England and the Middle States, who had been free-traders in the time of Madison, were now protectionists; and the people of the South, who had been protectionists at that period, were now free-traders. Each sought personal advantage and profit in the legislation of Congress. The South desired to obtain manufactured goods from Europe at the least cost in exchange for its cotton, rice, and tobacco. The North wished such a tariff on foreign goods as would protect the American manufacturer from the cheap labor of Europe. Whatever touches the people's pockets is certain sooner or later to become the leading political question. A tariff was passed in 1828 more protective in its nature than any that had preceded it. While it tended to encourage manufactures in the North, it created great dissatisfaction in the South.

Tariff of 1828.

After a heated and bitter political canvass, in which even the personal characters of the candidates were fiercely assailed, General Andrew Jackson was elected President over John Quincy Adams by a very large majority, and John C. Calhoun was chosen Vice President.

Election of Jackson.

CHAPTER XXXIV.

JACKSON'S ADMINISTRATION (1829-1837).

"Proud was his tone, but calm; his eye
Had that compelling dignity,
His mien that bearing haught and high,
Which common spirits fear."

THE career of Andrew Jackson is one of the most remarkable in history. Born of poor immigrant parents from the North of Ireland, losing his father when a child, reared in abject poverty by an excellent mother, we first hear of him as a mere lad of thirteen resenting British insolence and tyranny. We next hear of him in mature manhood crushing Indian insurrections with an iron hand, and gaining a great victory over that nation which he hated with all the strength of his rugged nature. The man who could raise himself from so lowly an origin to be the chief ruler of a great nation, must have possessed superior qualities of heart and brain; but combined with these we must expect other qualities not so admirable. Owing to his early environment in a semi-civilized district of country, and to the lack of a regular education in youth, he was apt, like most self-taught men, to be opinionated and headstrong. That he was honest, sincere, and courageous, even his worst enemies admitted.

Jackson.

Jackson's career.

Jackson's gratitude, it is only fair to state, to those who aided him to reach the presidency led to one of the worst evils connected with the administration of the American government — the removal of men from office for political reasons. That the cabinet, who are the political advisers of the President, the ministers to foreign courts, and the other great federal officers, should belong to the party in power is not only right but necessary. But that subordinate officers whose duties are merely clerical, administrative, or judicial should be removed with every change in the general government is extremely pernicious. It has created an army of professional politicians of the baser sort, who have no visible means of subsistence except the spoils of office. "To the victors belong the spoils," has been the curse of American politics since the presidency of Jackson. The greed for office has been a standing menace to the purity of republican government. Jackson, in order to make places for his political partisans, removed more men from office during the first month of his term, than all the Presidents who had preceded him.

Corruption in the government.

The charter granted by Congress to the United States Bank in 1815, to continue twenty-one years, expired in 1836; and hence it became necessary for its officers to obtain a renewal of the charter at an early day. A bill to recharter the bank was passed in 1832 by the Senate and House of Representatives, but was vetoed by the President; and for lack of the constitutional two-thirds vote it failed to become a law. In regard to the maintenance of a national bank the people were nearly equally divided. The mass of the common people supported Jackson's hostility to it, while most of the merchants, manufacturers, and traders favored its retention. The President finally ordered the transfer of the government funds from the United States Bank to certain State banks. This created great excitement throughout the country; and many considered the transfer an arbitrary and dangerous exercise of power.

The United States Bank.

At the close of Jackson's first term the country was found to be in a most prosperous condition. The nation had paid off its national debt. The "good times" and his action against the United States Bank led to Jackson's reëlection over Henry Clay, the candidate of the opposition, by a large majority. Martin Van Buren of New York was chosen Vice President.

Jackson's reëlection.

The doctrine of State rights had been a source of trouble since the establishment of the independence of the United States. John C. Calhoun, a very able man, now a senator from South Carolina, and formerly Vice President, became the advocate and champion of the right of a State to withdraw from the Union in case the people felt themselves aggrieved or oppressed. If this political idea were carried into action, it would necessarily reduce a powerful republic to so many petty States, the prey of any power which might desire the acquisition of new territory. It meant disruption and destruction.

Doctrine of State rights.

The first duty of a great nation is to preserve itself at any cost; and this the President thoroughly understood. So he was prepared to meet and crush treason in South Carolina when, at a State convention, her representatives declared the tariff bill of 1832 unconstitutional, and adopted a resolution that the duties should not be paid, and that any attempt on the part of the general government to enforce the payment would cause South Carolina to withdraw from the Union.

The hero of New Orleans was not the man to hesitate for a moment in such a dangerous crisis. He issued a proclamation and a message to Congress, in which he denied the right of nullification or secession, and told the people of South Carolina that he would use the combined power of all the other States to compel them to obey the laws of the United States. General Winfield Scott was sent to Charleston, in command of a military and naval force, to carry out the President's orders; and South Carolina quietly submitted. The danger was warded

Jackson crushes secession.

off, or postponed, by the "Compromise Measure" of Henry Clay, which provided for the gradual reduction of the tariff until 1843, when the duties were to fall to twenty per cent.

In most cases of difficulty with the Indians the white man was the aggressor. He coveted the lands of the savage and usually managed to seize them. In this greed for territory is summed up in brief the cause for nearly all the Indian wars and massacres which are a blot on the page of American history. The second war with the Seminoles was no exception to the general rule. The territorial government of Florida wished to be rid of the savages and to obtain their lands. The States of Georgia and Alabama did not want them for neighbors, chiefly because their fugitive slaves found refuge and freedom among them.

By the treaty of Dades Landing, seven chiefs of the Seminoles were sent west of the Mississippi to look at the land reserved for the Creeks, and to see if the two tribes could live amicably together. If everything was found satisfactory, the Seminoles were to be transported to the new country within three years; and for the surrender of their lands the United States government agreed to pay $15,000, together with an annuity and certain supplies.

Many of the Seminoles were opposed to leaving their hunting-grounds. Among these was a young chief of dauntless courage and savage cunning named Osceola, who combined the vindictive cruelty of the Indian with the resolution of the Anglo-Saxon. He was nearly white. In addition to other causes for hostility, he had suffered personal wrong, in that his wife had been kidnapped and carried back into slavery. In 1835 the Seminoles, under the leadership of this able man, rose up in arms, and began a course of merciless massacre. General Clinch, then stationed in the center of Florida, was supposed to be in danger; and Major Dade was sent from Tampa Bay to his support with a reënforcement of about a hundred and forty men. On the march he was surprised, attacked, and his entire force

Second Seminole War.

destroyed. While this slaughter was going on, a small band of warriors, under Osceola, surprised General Thompson, who was dining just outside Fort King, and killed him and four others. The Indians retreated in safety.

Two days after this event General Clinch attacked and defeated the savages on the banks of the Withlacoochee. General Gaines, who came from New Orleans with a force of seven hundred men, was attacked by superior numbers and suffered some loss. The Seminoles were joined by many of the Creeks; and murders and devastation became so common that many of the planters of Georgia and Alabama were forced to fly northward for their lives. The summer was unhealthy for the white soldiers; and Forts King, Drane, and Micanopy were abandoned by the Americans. Governor Call, with a force of two thousand men, defeated the Indians in two engagements. Finally, General Gaines, who had superseded Call, gained a complete victory, dislodged the savages from their stronghold on the Withlacoochee, and drove them to the Everglades, where they were compelled to sue for peace. But peace was only intended to deceive the whites, and lull them into apparent security; for five days later the Indians made an unsuccessful attack on Fort Melton.

Progress of the war.

In October, 1837, Osceola, with several chiefs and about seventy warriors, came to the American camp under a flag of truce; but General Jessup, to his disgrace, seized and held them as prisoners. Osceola was confined in Fort Moultrie in Charleston Harbor, where he died of fever. The government at last selected an able officer, General Worth, to command the district, and he virtually brought the war to a close.

Death of Osceola.

Two new States were admitted into the Union during Jackson's administration — Arkansas in 1836, and Michigan in 1837.

Arkansas and Michigan admitted.

In the general election of 1836 Martin Van Buren of New York was chosen President, and Richard M. Johnson of Kentucky Vice President.

Election of Van Buren.

CHAPTER XXXV.

VAN BUREN'S AND HARRISON'S ADMINISTRATION.

"How quickly nature
Falls into revolt when gold becomes the object."
. . . . . .
"Death, so called, is a thing that makes men weep,
And yet a third of life is passed in sleep."

Van Buren's Administration (1837–1841).

The city of New York in 1837, as now, was the great financial center of the United States. Anything that tends to shake or destroy confidence in the monetary affairs of this center radiates to the circumference in all directions. Scarcely had Van Buren been inaugurated when the banks in the city of New York failed to the extent of nearly ten millions of dollars. A delegation from New York waited on the President, and requested him to afford relief to the business community, which was suffering from the effects of panic. He was asked to rescind the "Specie Circular," which was a treasury order issued during the previous administration, to require the payment for public lands to be made in gold and silver; to delay enforcing the collection of revenue duties; and to call an early session of Congress to devise some means to relieve the country from its embarrassments.

Van Buren.

The President granted the second request, but refused the other two. His refusal caused all the banks in New York to suspend specie payments; and this led to a similar suspension of all the banks throughout the country. Even the government itself was unable to meet its engagements. In spite of his previous refusal, the President was induced to call a special meeting of Congress. A bill was passed authorizing the issue of treasury notes to the amount of ten millions of dollars; and another bill known as the Subtreasury Bill passed the Senate, but was defeated in the House of Representatives. It was not until 1840 that this bill — a favorite one of the administration — passed both houses and became a law. As financial panics are usually caused by over speculation or over production, the business of the country soon returned to a prosperous condition.

Financial crisis of 1837.

In 1837 the Liberal party in Canada rose in rebellion against the tyranny of Great Britain. It was only natural that the descendants of "rebels" in the United States should sympathize with rebels in Canada. But it was the duty of the American government to prevent sympathy from assuming the active form of assistance to the insurgents.

Accordingly, General Scott was sent to the frontier with an armed force, and with authority to call for aid from the governors of Michigan and New York to prevent American volunteers from joining the rebel army, and thereby causing serious difficulty between England and the United States. But in spite of every effort on the part of the administration, American sympathizers managed to send supplies across the Niagara River in a small steamer called the *Caroline* to a party of five hundred insurgents stationed on Navy Island. A British armed vessel was sent to capture the *Caroline*, and, not finding her at Navy Island, pursued her to American territory, boarded her, and in the conflict that followed killed twelve of her men. She was then set on fire, and cast adrift down the Falls of Niagara. This high-handed act was resented by the people

The Canadian Rebellion.

throughout the United States, and very nearly led to war between the two nations. The trouble was not ended until some time after the rebellion was subdued.

The rise of a new religion is always a matter of interest to mankind; and Mormonism was no exception to this general feeling. The founder of this Christian sect — for they called themselves Christians — was Joseph Smith, born in Vermont of poor, ignorant farmer parents. The family, which seems to have been shiftless, removed to Palmyra, N.Y., where in 1827 Joseph, like another Mohammed, pretended that he had received a divine revelation, written on golden plates, called the Book of Mormon, which he published in 1830. Having made a considerable number of converts, he removed with them to Kirtland, O., and afterwards to Independence, Mo. But they were expelled from that State in 1838, and then settled in Nauvoo, Ill., where they began to build a great temple. Smith assumed extraordinary powers, being, in fact, prophet, priest, and king, and amassed a great fortune. At length he was arrested, and thrown into jail; and in June, 1844, he was killed by an angry mob. He was succeeded by Brigham Young, who persuaded his deluded followers to emigrate to the Great Salt Lake, and organize the State of Deseret. This territory is now called Utah. The Mormons up to a recent period gave the United States government a great deal of trouble.

Rise of Mormonism.

With the single exception of John Quincy Adams, all the Presidents for forty years had been Republicans, or, as they were now called, Democrats. The Federal party, now known as Whigs, had been in a minority, owing to several causes. It did not seem capable of comprehending the wishes of the common people in its opposition to the war of 1812. It had to contend, too, against the united front which the Southern slaveholders always presented to retain possession of the general government.

The presidential election of 1840 was perhaps the most exciting that the country ever witnessed. Martin Van Buren

was nominated by the Democrats, and General William Henry Harrison by the Whigs. In order, if possible, to carry Virginia, the Whigs nominated John Tyler of that State for Vice President. The Western people supported the hero of the Thames and Tippecanoe, who belonged to their section, with great energy and enthusiasm. "Tippecanoe and Tyler too" became their war cry. Some invidious remark about Harrison's being satisfied with a pension and a log cabin caused the Whigs to make it a log cabin political campaign. Monster mass meetings were held everywhere, even in great cities, around log cabins as centers, where the ablest orators of the Whig party expounded Whig politics. The zeal and energy of the West were diffused through the Eastern States; and Harrison was elected by an immense majority, receiving one hundred and seventy-five votes to Van Buren's sixty.

Election of Harrison.

W. H. Harrison.

Harrison's Administration (1841).

The President was inaugurated on the 4th of March, 1841; on the 4th of April following he lay a corpse in the White House. The good-natured, rugged, simple soldier, who had withstood the rigors of many a campaign in the western wilderness, was unable to withstand the harassing importunities of multitudes of office-seekers. He was the first President who died in office. John Tyler, who was really a Democrat, became, according to the Constitution, his successor.

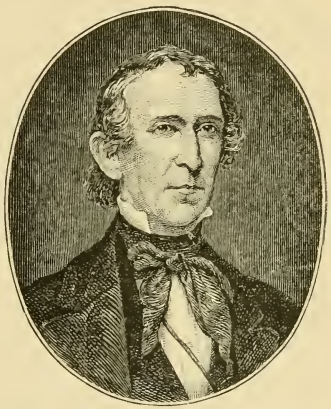
Harrison's death.

CHAPTER XXXVI.

TYLER'S ADMINISTRATION (1841-1845).

"Change places and *handy-dandy*, which is the governor and which the rebel?"

THE new President had scarcely taken the oath of office before he broke away from the Whig party which had elected him. He vetoed in succession two bills (the latter especially amended to meet his objections to the former) passed by Congress for the establishment of a United States Bank. This led to the resignation of his entire cabinet except Daniel Webster, the Secretary of State.



Tyler.

The State of Rhode Island continued to be governed by her old colonial charter, which was anything but Republican in form; for the franchise was limited to freeholders and leaseholders, which caused a large number of the people to have no voice in the government under which they lived. There was gross injustice caused by the inequality of representation in the legislature. Two parties were formed, each advocating its own method of adopting a new constitution.

At a convention held October, 1841, the "suffrage" party formed a constitution, and under it elected Thomas W. Dorr governor. The "law and order" party, under the old charter, chose Governor Samuel W. King. Both parties took up arms, and appealed to the Federal government. The suffrage party

was twice dispersed without coming to blows; and twice Dorr fled from the State. Returning once more, to head another rising of his followers, he was arrested, tried for treason, convicted, and sentenced to imprisonment for life. But after a confinement of three years he was liberated, and in 1851 he was restored to citizenship. The State legislature in the meantime had called a convention to draw up a constitution; but it was rejected by the popular vote. The next year, however, another constitution was submitted to the people, and ratified.

Dorr's Rebellion.

In 1842 Lord Ashburton was sent to America on a special mission, to adjust, if possible, the boundary lines between the British possessions and the United States. Daniel Webster negotiated for America. The chief point of dispute between the two countries was the limits of the State of Maine. An agreement was finally reached, and a treaty formed which established the boundaries as they stand at present. When the treaty of Washington, as it is officially called, was sanctioned by both governments, the people on both sides of the Atlantic found fault with it, each declaring that they had yielded too much to the other.

Treaty of Washington.

When Mexico began, in the year 1810, the struggle to shake off the yoke of Spain, Texas was sparsely settled by a few missions of the Roman Catholic Church; but after the establishment of Mexican independence, the republican government adopted a liberal system of colonization. It also prohibited slavery within the boundaries of the country. The province of Texas had been largely settled by adventurers and emigrants from the United States. The Mexican republic was troubled by rapid revolutions, created by ambitious soldiers. One of these, named Santa Anna, made himself virtually military dictator. Many of the provinces, however, refused to acknowledge his authority; and Texas, the largest of them, revolted, and by force of arms achieved her independence. But Mexico never relinquished her claim to this extensive territory.

Texan revolution.

The new republic, whose leading citizens were mostly Americans, naturally sought annexation to the United States. But on this question the American people were strongly divided. The Southern States were in favor of the admission of Texas into the Union, because they hoped to carve out of the vast territory several slave States to balance the great free States of the Northwest. The very reason that impelled the South to favor annexation forced the North to oppose it. On this very important question the presidential election of 1844 turned. James K. Polk of Tennessee had been nominated by the Democrats, and Henry Clay by the Whigs. New York and Pennsylvania, doubting the sincerity of Clay, voted for Polk; and their votes, together with the votes of the Southern States, elected him President.

Election of Polk.

In the last moments of Tyler's administration a joint resolution annexing Texas was passed by both houses of Congress. It was not to be expected that Mexico could view with indifference the absorption by the United States of the territory which had once been her fairest province. Although Texas had been an independent republic since 1836, the Mexican government was not without the hope of recovering the country. Hence annexation by the United States was considered an act of hostility, and, in fact, equivalent to a declaration of war. The Mexican minister at Washington demanded his passports, and returned home.

Annexation of Texas.

The last act of Tyler's administration was the admission of Florida to the Union as a slave State, on March 3, 1845.

Florida admitted.

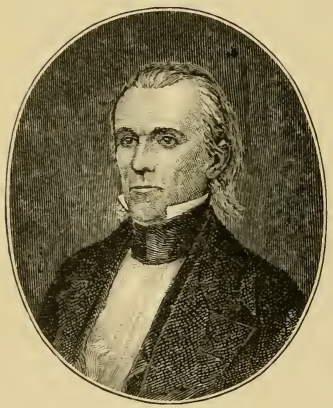
CHAPTER XXXVII.

POLK'S ADMINISTRATION (1845-1849).

"A thousand glorious actions that might claim
Triumphant laurels and immortal fame,
Confused in clouds of glorious actions lie;
And troops of heroes undistinguished die."

The Mexican War.

When James K. Polk was inaugurated President, he found that a war with Mexico was inevitable. Texas agreed to the terms by which she became a State of the American Union; and, anticipating an invasion by Mexico, she requested the President to send a naval force to protect her coast, and an army to defend her territory. Both requests were granted. General Zachary Taylor was advised by the Texan government to move his small army of about four thousand men to Corpus Christi, the southern border of Texas.



Polk.

When, however, the United States government had learned that Mexico had refused to receive the American envoy sent to negotiate a settlement of the difficulties between the two countries, the President ordered General Taylor to take up a position on the Rio Grande, which Texas had declared to be the southern and western boundary of the State. Taylor moved, accordingly, to the eastern bank of the river, and

THE
MEXICAN WAR.
By Russell Hinman, C.E.
0 200 400 Miles

GEN. SCOTT'S
ROUTE
FROM VERA CRUZ TO MEXICO
0 10 20 30 40 50 Miles

L. B. Folger Sc. Cin.

erected a fort, which he called Fort Brown. He had previously established a depot of provisions at Fort Isabel.

The Mexican general ordered Taylor to leave this position. On the 23d of April, 1846, the enemy crossed the river, and attacked a small body of dragoons. Sixteen were killed, and the remainder captured. This was the first blood shed in the contest. As it was becoming evident that the Mexican general Ampudia was making an effort to cut off the Americans from their base of supplies, General Taylor, leaving a small garrison in charge of Fort Brown, moved hastily to the support of Fort Isabel. After strengthening the fort, he began his march toward the river.

War with Mexico.

He had not gone very far before he found Ampudia's army, consisting of six thousand men, with seven pieces of artillery, drawn up across the road near Palo Alto, to bar his progress; and although the American force was little more than half that of the Mexican, "Old Rough and Ready," as Taylor was affectionately called by his soldiers, did not hesitate for a moment to attack the enemy, chiefly with artillery. After an engagement which lasted five hours, the Americans gained a complete victory. The defeated army fell back to Resaca de la Palma, where it made a second stand. This time their artillery was better served, and the American ranks were severely raked, until Captain May, at the head of a body of cavalry, charged up to the very mouths of their cannon, slew the artillerymen at their posts, and captured General La Vega, the commander. At the critical moment the infantry supported the dragoons, and routed the enemy. The next morning there was not a single Mexican soldier to be found on the east bank of the Rio Grande.

Palo Alto and Resaca de la Palma.

The President considered the crossing of the Rio Grande as an invasion of American territory. He therefore sent a message to Congress, wherein he aroused the warlike sentiment of the country by describing the shedding of the blood of their fellow-citizens by Mexican invaders. Congress immediately declared war,

Declaration of war.

authorized the President to accept fifty thousand volunteers, and placed $10,000,000 at his disposal. The news of Taylor's two victories had stirred the people to such an extent that more than three hundred thousand men volunteered their services. Many fancied that it would be nothing but a grand holiday march to the capital of the Montezumas.

Santa Anna.

While the United States was actively preparing for war, one of those sudden revolutions so common in the Spanish American republics took place in Mexico, by which Santa Anna, who had been banished in 1845 for a period of ten years, was recalled to power. Commodore Connor, then commanding a squadron which blockaded Vera Cruz, received orders from the American government to permit the exiled general to return to his country. The purpose of the President was to open negotiations for peace, knowing, perhaps, that peace was impossible. The effort, however, would serve to justify the war in the eyes of civilized nations. Santa Anna, now at the head of the military forces of Mexico, refused to entertain the propositions presented by the American government.

Return of Santa Anna.

An effective army of twenty-three thousand men began in the fall of 1846 the invasion of Mexico. Two thousand of these, under the command of General Wool, with headquarters at San Antonio de Bexar, were detailed for the conquest of the province of Chihuahua; and seventeen hundred more, commanded by General Kearny, were to march from Missouri to Santa Fé, the capital of New Mexico. The greater portion, however, remained at Fort Brown, under General Taylor.

Invasion of Mexico.

In the latter part of August, 1846, Taylor crossed the Rio Grande with six thousand six hundred men, took possession

of Matamoras, and fortified several places on the west side of the river. On the 19th of September he attacked the strongly fortified town of Monterey, the capital of the province of New Leon. In addition to its natural strength, which was great, the town had been carefully fortified, and contained an army of ten thousand soldiers, seven thousand of whom were regulars, under the command of General Ampudia. After a desperate struggle, continued for four days, the Americans gained a splendid victory, and obtained possession of the town. An armistice was declared for eight weeks; but the United States government ordered Taylor to renew the offensive, and prosecute the war with vigor.

Capture of Monterey.

In August, 1846, General Philip Kearny, at the head of a force of eighteen hundred men, marched a thousand miles from Bent Fort on the Arkansas River, and captured Santa Fé, the capital of New Mexico, without opposition. He organized the province into a Territory of the United States, and placed a civil governor in command. Then he started on a perilous march across the continent, for the purpose of seizing the Mexican territory on the Pacific Ocean. But learning that California was already in the hands of the Americans, he sent back most of his force, and with the remainder pursued his march.

Conquest of New Mexico.

An exploring expedition under Captain John C. Frémont, of the Topographical Corps of Engineers, while laying out a southern route to Oregon, was threatened by De Castro, governor of California. Frémont, learning that the Mexicans meditated an attack on some American settlers near San Francisco, determined to oppose them. He captured Sonoma, recruited his small force, and defeated the Mexicans in several engagements. On the 4th of July, 1846, he declared the independence of California. In the meantime, Commodore Sloat had captured the towns on the coast, had driven De Castro from Los Angeles, and had taken Monterey, the capital of the province. Soon afterwards California was organized into a United States Territory.

Conquest of California.

The purpose of Mr. Polk's administration was to seize and hold the northern provinces of Mexico by means of the army under General Taylor, while at the same time a strong force under General Scott, who was made commander in chief of all the armies against Mexico, should capture Vera Cruz, march directly for the Mexican capital, and strike a fatal blow at the heart of the enemy. After the close of the armistice with General Ampudia, which had displeased the American President, Taylor left garrisons at Monterey and Saltillo, and advanced to Aqua Nueva.

Scott.

Scott had called for ten thousand of Taylor's troops, so that he had only about five thousand men left with whom to contend against the large army moving northward under the command of the Mexican President.

When Santa Anna learned that the American army in the north had been reduced more than half, he collected a force which he supposed sufficiently strong to crush General Taylor. With this force, flushed with victory, he proposed to rush to the support of the army arrayed against Scott. The Mexicans moving against Taylor outnumbered the Americans more than three to one. Taylor fell back to a plateau between rugged mountain ridges, where he made a stand, determined to give battle to the enemy. The Mexicans, on the 23d of February, 1847, took the offensive with great dash and impetuosity. But they were met with the cool courage peculiar to the men of the north. Every charge of the enemy was repulsed with slaughter. The battle lasted all day; and toward night the Mexicans withdrew. Taylor gained a glorious victory against great odds. Santa Anna lost fifteen hundred men, while the American loss was less than half that number. Colonel Henry Clay, a son of the famous statesman, was slain in the battle, and among those who distinguished themselves for courage and conduct was

Battle of Buena Vista.

Colonel Jefferson Davis, subsequently President of the Southern Confederacy.

On the 7th of March the fleet containing the army of invasion, amounting to twelve thousand men, under the command of General Scott, arrived at Vera Cruz, a strongly fortified town two hundred miles from the Mexican capital. Two days later the army was landed by means of surf-boats, and took up a position south of the city, which was defended by the castle of San Juan de Ulloa. On the 22d the investment was completed. Scott then summoned the garrison to surrender, and on their refusal began a furious bombardment, which was replied to with some spirit by the artillery of the town and castle. For four days the rain of shot and shell continued, inflicting some loss on the besiegers, but far more on the besieged. The American army was assisted by the fleet under Commodore Connor. The contest continued until the 27th; and just as Scott was about to order an assault, the governor of Vera Cruz surrendered the town.

Capture of Vera Cruz.

This victory opened the way by the Jalapa road to the Mexican capital. On the 8th of April, General Twiggs was ordered to lead the advance. About fifty miles northwest of Vera Cruz, Santa Anna, at the head of fifteen thousand men hastily collected after his defeat at Buena Vista, took a strong position on the heights of Cerro Gordo, where his cannon commanded the only road through the mountains beyond which lay the old city of the Montezumas, which was Scott's objective point. The position of the enemy was a most formidable one. To attack it in front would have been certain destruction. The American commander in chief, however, found means to attack Santa Anna on both flanks; and General Shields managed to scale rocky heights in the rear by a path that had been deemed inaccessible. A simultaneous assault was then made, and every position taken by storm. Santa Anna fled with a remnant of his army, leaving three thousand prisoners and forty pieces of artillery

Battle of Cerro Gordo.

in the hands of the Americans, together with an immense amount of small arms and munitions of war.

Santa Anna fled to Jalapa, closely followed by Scott, who took the town without resistance. He then captured the strong castle of Perote, with its artillery and military stores. On the 15th of May the old city of Puebla, the second in Mexico, was occupied by General Worth. Scott was now in the heart of Mexico, far from his base of supplies, with an army reduced by battle, sickness, and the deadly heat of the summer to five thousand effective men. The wonder is that the Mexicans did not destroy this force before reënforcements could come to its aid.

Capture of Puebla.

On the 6th of August General Franklin Pierce arrived with his brigade. General Scott called in all his garrisons except that at Vera Cruz, and, leaving Puebla in the hands of the convalescents, resumed his march on the 7th of August for the Mexican capital, with an army amounting to fourteen thousand men. Three days later this army passed over the Rio Frio Mountains without opposition, and from the heights beheld the old city of Mexico in the beautiful valley, surrounded by lovely lakes shining in the sun like polished silver. On the 11th, General Twiggs reached Ayotla, within fifteen miles of the capital. Scott's intention was to attack the city on the east; but he found it so fortified that he concluded to pass around Lake Chalco, and make the assault from the west.

Santa Anna had thirty thousand men under his command in or near the capital, which was strongly fortified with one hundred guns to protect the approaches to the city. These approaches were extremely difficult, owing to marshes and ground composed of broken lava. General Valencia, with six thousand men, had taken a strong position on a hill near the village of Contreras. Santa Anna sent him an order to spike his guns, destroy his stores, and retreat by the mountain paths. Valencia refused to obey, and the Mexican commander in chief left him to his fate.

During the early morning of the 20th of August, General Riley seized a hill in the rear of the Mexicans which Valencia had failed to occupy. Without a moment's hesitation the American general ordered an assault against the enemy's works. At the same time he was assisted by three brigades, which attacked the Mexicans in front. They were thrown into utter confusion. Their retreat was almost completely cut off; two thousand were slain; a thousand prisoners were taken; and guns, ammunition, and stores in large quantity were captured. The remainder of their broken army, closely pursued by the Americans, fled to Churubusco, where Santa Anna had collected all his forces. This great victory cost the Americans the insignificant loss of sixty men in killed or wounded.

Battle of Contreras.

About four miles northeast of Contreras, was fought the most fiercely contested battle of the war. When General Worth attempted to carry the bridge, he was met by a withering fire from the convent. Shields and Pierce were ordered to seize the main road in the rear of Churubusco. In doing so, they came upon the Mexican reserves, and would have been in imminent danger had not Worth and Pillow carried the bridge and come to their rescue. Both sides fought desperately and stubbornly; but nothing could withstand the dash and courage of the American soldiers. Again the Mexicans fled in disorder, and again the Americans were victorious.

Battle of Churubusco.

In order to gain delay, Santa Anna induced the English embassy to request an armistice, which General Scott granted in the hope of effecting a treaty of peace. The terms proposed by the Mexican President were too extravagant to be entertained. He treated the Americans as though they had been the vanquished and not the victorious; and the American commander in chief, perceiving that Santa Anna's purpose was simply to gain time, ordered an advance against Molino del Rey and Casa de Mata, the outer defenses of Chapultepec. On the

Battle of Molino del Rey.

7th of September a desperate engagement took place, in which General Worth lost a quarter of his entire force. After a fierce struggle the Americans captured both fortresses, and took seven hundred prisoners. The Mexicans then fled to Chapultepec.

Chapultepec, formerly the residence of the Spanish viceroys, is situated on a rocky eminence a hundred and fifty feet above the surrounding country. It was strongly fortified; and on its northern and eastern sides was accessible, while the approaches on the southern and western sides were so exceedingly difficult that the fortress was almost impregnable. General Scott called a council of war at which it was decided that Chapultepec must be captured before the city could be taken. On the 12th the Americans opened an artillery fire against the enemy's works, but with little effect. The following morning, after a desperate resistance, the formidable fortress was carried by storm; and all day the battle was continued on the causeways leading into the capital. At night one division of the American army was in the suburbs, and another within the city gates. During the succeeding night Santa Anna, with his whole army and all the officers of his government, fled from the capital; and the stars and stripes floated in triumph over the "halls of the Montezumas." Mexico was conquered by a series of victories which reflect the highest credit on the valor of the American private and the skill of the American officer.

Battle of Chapultepec.

On the 2d of February, 1848, the terms of a treaty of peace were concluded; and after some alterations the Senate adopted it on the 10th of the following month. On the 30th of May it was ratified by the Mexican government. By the terms of this treaty the United States received a vast territory, including Texas, New Mexico, Arizona, and California; and agreed to pay the paltry sum of $15,000,000; to assume the debts due American citizens by the government of Mexico, and to relinquish all the cities and towns captured during the war.

Treaty of Guadalupe Hidalgo.

A great number, perhaps a majority, of the Northern people had been opposed to the annexation of Texas and to the war with Mexico, because they had foreseen that the result would lead to the extension of slavery and the increase of the already overgrown power of the slaveholders in the affairs of the nation. The Abolition party — especially in New England and in some of the new Northwestern States — had developed into formidable proportions. It was opposed to all compromises with, and concessions to, slavery. It insisted upon its utter destruction, root and branch. There was still another party in the North — the Free Soil party — whose purpose was to prevent the extension of slavery into the new territory conquered from Mexico. With this end in view, David Wilmot of Pennsylvania introduced a bill in the House of Representatives, providing that slavery should be prohibited in the lately acquired provinces. The "Wilmot Proviso," as it was called, led to angry discussions, and split the Democratic party in two.

Revival of the slavery agitation.

The Whigs nominated the victorious general, Zachary Taylor, for President, and Millard Fillmore for Vice President. General Lewis Cass was nominated by the Democrats, and, had they been united, they would doubtless have elected him. But the Free Soil party nominated Martin Van Buren on the platform of the Wilmot Proviso, and polled sufficient votes to defeat Cass and elect Taylor.

Election of Taylor.

During Polk's administration three States were admitted into the Union, Texas as a slave State, in 1845, and Iowa and Wisconsin as free States, the former in 1846, and the latter in 1848.

Admission of Texas, Iowa, and Wisconsin.

CHAPTER XXXVIII.

TAYLOR'S AND FILLMORE'S ADMINISTRATION.

"No slave hunt on our borders,
No pirate on our strand."

Taylor's Administration (1849–1850).

The United States had scarcely obtained possession of California, when, on the land of a Swiss settler named Sutter, gold was discovered in large quantities. In February, 1848, some workmen employed in cutting a mill race on a fork of the Sacramento River turned up black earth spangled with gold. On further examination the sands in all the streams flowing from the Sierra Nevada were found mixed with the precious metal. It was impossible to preserve the discovery a secret. The news was soon spread over all the earth. Laborers forsook their farms, and sailors deserted their ships. Emigrants from the northwest crossed the plains and the Rocky Mountains; others from the northeast sailed around the Horn, or reached the gold fields by way of Panama. The population quickly rose from fifteen thousand to nearly one hundred thousand. To give an idea of the condition of affairs in the mining districts, it is only necessary to state that at one time

Taylor.

Discovery of gold in California.

flour and pork were sold at one hundred dollars a barrel, and a dollar was the price paid for a newspaper. As most of the immigrants were from the old Northern States, they naturally desired to frame a Republican constitution.

In 1849 General Riley was military commander of the newly acquired territory. In accordance with the wishes of the administration, he issued a proclamation calling upon the people to meet in convention, and establish a territorial government. The meeting took place, and a constitution was framed prohibiting slavery. The people then asked for the admission of California into the Union.

The question of slavery continued to disturb the country. Most of the Southern people believed that human slavery was "a divine institution;" while in the North many considered it "a sin against God and a crime against man." The parallel of 36°, 30′ ran almost through the middle of California. The Southern "fire eaters," as the most radical proslavery agitators were now called, claimed that all the vast territory obtained by conquest had been acquired by Southern valor and Southern blood; that the North had been opposed to the war with Mexico, and had thrown every obstacle in the way of prosecuting it to a successful issue. The slaveholders demanded the right to carry their slave property into the new Territories, and once more threatened a dissolution of the Union. President Taylor, with the spirit of Andrew Jackson, informed the secessionists that if they made an attempt to take a State out of the Union, he would suppress them by force of arms; and that, too, without calling for a single soldier from a Northern State. The threat, however, had its effect. Statesmen and patriots in the North feared disunion more than the spread of slavery. Many of them, like Daniel Webster, foresaw civil war, and hoped to ward it off in their day.

Threats of dissolution.

Henry Clay stepped in for the third time as a peacemaker. He introduced in the Senate eight resolutions, which he offered as a compromise that would satisfy the majority of

the people, North and South. They admitted California as a free State in 1850; they made the Rio Grande the western boundary of Texas, provided the latter abandoned her claim to New Mexico; they prohibited the introduction of slaves into the District of Columbia, but did not abolish slavery therein; they declared that Congress had no right to interfere with the trade in slaves between the slave States; and they made more stringent provision for the recovery of fugitive slaves. This was a heavy price to pay for the admission of California as a free State. An acrimonious debate was continued throughout the spring and summer; but the resolutions, slightly amended, were finally passed in the form of separate bills. These together are known as the *Omnibus Bill*. While these discussions were agitating the whole country, President Taylor died after a short illness of one week, and was succeeded by Millard Fillmore of New York, the Vice President.

California admitted.

Fillmore.

Fillmore's succession to the presidency.

Fillmore's Administration (1850–1853).

As one by one the compromise measures passed both houses, Mr. Fillmore signed them, and the Attorney-general pronounced them constitutional. The most obnoxious of these bills to the people of the North was the Fugitive Slave Law. By its provisions a slaveholder could claim a colored man in any free State of the Union as his property, and the person claimed was denied the right of trial by jury. The courts were compelled to give

Fugitive Slave Law.

him up to the claimant on his mere word. All citizens were called upon to assist the authorities, when necessary, to send the colored man, whether free or not, into slavery. The Southern statesmen evinced a most extraordinary lack of judgment in pressing such a law through Congress, and Fillmore a singular want of political foresight in signing it; for it made Abolitionists and Free Soilers by the thousand, and destroyed all hopes of the President's nomination at the end of his term.

While the people, North and South, were becoming every day more bitter and estranged because of the existence and extension of slavery, and preparing for the great struggle which compromises could not much longer put off, the country had never been in such a prosperous condition. Trade, commerce, manufactures, arts, and education flourished. The European revolutions of 1848–1849 had driven to America large numbers of a superior class of immigrants, many of whom settled in the northwest. The Bureau of Agriculture — since erected into a department — was established; measures were taken to construct the Pacific Railroad to span the continent; and Commodore Perry was sent to Japan to open the ports of that wonderful country to the world.

General prosperity.

The nominations for the presidency were made chiefly on account of the "availability" of the candidates. The statesmen of both parties — Clay, Webster, Marcy, Cass, Buchanan, and Seward — were thrown overboard, and two military chieftains without experience in civil affairs, General Winfield Scott and General Franklin Pierce, were chosen the political standard-bearers; the former for the Whigs, and the latter for the Democrats. Pierce was comparatively unknown. He had served as a subordinate under Scott; and yet he was victorious over his old commander by a very large majority. Scott carried only Massachusetts, Vermont, Kentucky, and Tennessee. William R King of Alabama was chosen Vice President.

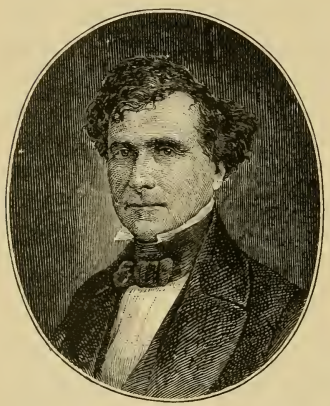
Election of Pierce.

CHAPTER XXXIX.

PIERCE'S ADMINISTRATION (1853–1857).

"They are slaves who fear to speak
For the fallen and the weak."

PIERCE was elected President because the majority of the people had grown weary of the constant agitation of the slavery question. They desired repose at any price, in order to pursue their peaceful occupations. The new administration perceived that the election had turned upon this feeling, and the President in his inaugural address and subsequent message to Congress assumed the position that the *Omnibus Bill* had settled the question of slavery, if not forever, for a very long time. But it was only salved over and healed on the surface, but liable to break out afresh at any moment. It had to be cut out with the sword.



Pierce.

The President's view of slavery.

It will be borne in mind that the Mexican government had prohibited slavery in all the territory acquired by the United States in the late war; that is to say, in Texas, New Mexico, Arizona, and California. The South demanded the right to carry slaves into this territory; the North was decidedly in favor of converting it into free States. The slaveholders insisted that the parallel of 36°, 30′ should be extended to the Pacific.

While both sides were in this state of mind, Stephen A. Douglas, a senator from Illinois, introduced his celebrated *Kansas-Nebraska Bill*, which once more aroused the people as they had never been aroused before. At this time Nebraska included all the territory north of Texas and west of Iowa and Missouri as far as the Rocky Mountains. The bill divided the territory into two parts, the northern part to be known as Nebraska, the southern as Kansas, and left it to the settlers themselves whether they should or should not establish slavery. This was simply a repeal of the Missouri Compromise; for, according to the terms of that bill, all territory north of 36°, 30′ *should be free*, while territory south of this line *might be slave*. The failure of that compromise was owing to the fact that the enlightened statesmen of 1820 could not possibly foresee the conquest of a quarter of a great continent. The bill was passed in both houses, and, having received the President's signature, became a law.

Kansas-Nebraska Bill.

The indignation of the North was intense and bitter; and Douglas, the "Little Giant," was burnt in effigy. As the existence or exclusion of slavery in these two territories, soon to become States, depended on the settlers, there was a great rush of proslavery men from Missouri and other slave States, and free State men from the North, especially from New England. The former were nicknamed "Border Ruffians," and the latter "Black Republicans." Both went armed, and established separate territorial governments. It was not long before civil war broke out between them, which was continued with great animosity. Several governors were appointed in rapid succession, who were unable to restore order. Finally, in 1859, a free State constitution was ratified, under which Charles Robinson was elected governor; but Kansas was not admitted into the Union until after most of the Southern members of Congress had retired to cast their lot with the Secession government at Montgomery.

Armed bands in Kansas.

The disastrous defeat of General Scott in 1852 virtually destroyed the Whig party, and, except in the South, there was a general disruption of the old parties. A new and strange political organization sprang into life, called the American or Know-nothing party, because when any person asked a member anything about the party, he was instructed to say, "I know nothing." The organization was secret and oath-bound; its principles were narrow and illiberal. A million and a half of voters joined it in the first two years of its existence, and in the elections of 1855 it swept nearly all the Northern States; but Henry A. Wise, the Democratic candidate for governor, of Virginia, in a series of most eloquent speeches, attacked it with great vigor, and was triumphantly elected. Besides the defeat in Virginia, the proslavery and the antislavery men in the party, finding that they could not use it to advance a cause which came nearer to their hearts, abandoned it to a lingering death.

American or Know-nothing party.

On the 22d of February, 1856, a momentous meeting of all the elements opposed to the extension of slavery was held in the city of Pittsburg. Present party names were dropped, and Whigs, Free Soilers, and Know-nothings became henceforth Republicans. The meeting resolved to call a convention to be held at Philadelphia on the 17th of June, the anniversary of the battle of Bunker Hill. This new party nominated John C. Frémont for President, and William L. Dayton for Vice President.

Republican party.

The Democratic party met at Cincinnati, and nominated James Buchanan for President, and John C. Breckinridge for Vice President. The proslavery "Americans" nominated Millard Fillmore. In the contest which followed, Mr. Buchanan was elected, but by a minority vote of the people. The new party, however, proved its strength by polling 1,341,000 votes, or within half a million of the votes given to the successful candidate.

Election of Buchanan.

CHAPTER XL.

BUCHANAN'S ADMINISTRATION (1857-1861).

"The man was noble,
But with his last attempt he wiped it out;
Destroyed his country; and his name remains
To the ensuing age abhorred."

SCARCELY had Mr. Buchanan been inaugurated when Chief Justice Taney, supported by a majority of the Supreme Court of the United States, rendered a decision which aroused the indignation of the North against the institution of slavery even more than the repeal of the Missouri Compromise or the murders committed by the "Border Ruffians" in Kansas. This was the Dred Scott Decision.

Buchanan.

Scott had been a slave, and the son of slaves; he had lived with his master for several years in the free State of Illinois, and afterwards in the free Territory of Minnesota. His master then returned with him to the slave State of Missouri. Here Scott entered a suit for his freedom, on the ground that his long residence on free soil made him a free man. His master's answer to this was that Scott could not bring an action because, being a slave, he was not a citizen. The case was carried to the Supreme Court of the United States, and there it was decided by a majority of the justices that a slave did not gain his freedom

The Dred Scott case.

by residence in a free State; that he was not a man, but property, and that his master could carry him, like any other property, into any State of the Union. This decision virtually established slavery in the United States.

It is sometimes difficult to trace the causes of the sudden convulsions which occur periodically in the commercial affairs of the country. They come usually at a time of great apparent prosperity, as suddenly as a summer thunderstorm; but unfortunately they do not pass away as rapidly. The general cause is over speculation, over production, and the over expansion of credits; and these evils in the present case received a great impetus from the discovery of gold in California and Australia. Such is the intimate relation between the great centers of trade, that the failure of one great house to meet its engagements is felt all over the commercial world. The immediate cause of the panic of 1857 was the failure of the Ohio Life and Trust Company. Nearly all the banks in the country were unable to meet their indebtedness, and even the national government was unable to pay its officers. It was several years before the nation recovered from the results of the panic.

Panic of 1857.

While eloquent and acrimonious debates were carried on from day to day and month to month in regard to the admission of Kansas as a State of the Union, and while Mr. Buchanan was appointing territorial governor after governor, with the purpose of establishing peace at any price; and while members of Congress were concocting and presenting compromises in the vain effort to ward off the impending conflict between freedom and slavery, a most singular event occurred in Virginia which had no small influence in hastening the struggle about to take place between the opposing forces.

John Brown, a stern enthusiast of Puritan descent, thoroughly imbued with one idea, the utter wickedness of slavery, resolved to make a practical effort to free the slaves. He had taken an active part in the struggle to make Kansas a free State; and in one of the many conflicts with the Border

Ruffians one of his sons was killed, and another driven to insanity by cruel treatment. That he was willing to take his life in his hand in what he believed to be a good cause is proof sufficient of his honesty, if not of his wisdom, and of that self-sacrifice which is the foundation of all heroism. Even his enemies, even Governor Wise of Virginia, bore testimony to his integrity. The means with which he undertook his celebrated invasion were ridiculously inadequate. He had two hundred Sharp's rifles, two hundred pistols, a thousand pikes and a force of eighteen men, five of whom were negroes.

John Brown.

At midnight, on the 16th of October, he rushed across the Potomac, and by a sudden dash seized Harpers Ferry, a United States arsenal, with all its stores and munitions of war. His aim was to arouse the negro slaves to fight for their freedom; but they refused to respond to his call. He was attacked by a body of national marines, against whom he and his little band fought with desperate valor until all except two, who escaped, were either killed or wounded. Among the latter was Brown himself, who was subsequently tried, convicted, and hanged. Six of his companions suffered a similar fate.

John Brown's raid.

On the 23d of April, 1860, the Democratic convention met at Charleston, S.C., to nominate candidates for the offices of President and Vice President. The followers of Stephen A. Douglas had a majority in the formation of the platform; and when the delegates from the cotton States, to whom Douglas had become obnoxious, perceived that he was likely to receive the nomination, they withdrew in a body. After fifty-four fruitless ballots, the convention adjourned to meet

on the 18th of June, at Baltimore; but when it met the condition of affairs was worse than before. Many other pro-slavery delegates seceded. Finally, the Northern Democrats, and those who remained from the South, nominated Mr. Douglas for President, and H. V. Johnson for Vice President. The seceding delegates on the same day nominated John C. Breckinridge for President, and Joseph Lane for Vice President. Thus the Democratic party was fatally split in two. On the 19th of May the Republican convention at Chicago nominated Abraham Lincoln of Illinois for President, and Hannibal Hamlin of Maine for Vice President. What remained of the American or Know-nothing party nominated John Bell for the head of their ticket, and, strange to say, the polished and distinguished Edward Everett for the lower position.

Presidential candidates of 1860.

In this election, the most momentous in the history of the country, there was no question of availability, or of nominating successful generals who knew nothing of statesmanship. The chosen leaders were able and aggressive exponents of party principles. Lincoln was the bold and fearless advocate of the prohibition of slavery in the Territories; Breckinridge the champion of carrying slaves into all the Territories; and Douglas the eloquent debater, in favor of leaving the matter of slavery or no slavery entirely in the hands of the settlers themselves. The result of the election was as follows: Lincoln received 1,857,610 votes; Douglas 1,291,574; Breckinridge 850,082, and Bell 646,124. So that the candidate of the Republicans was elected President, notwithstanding that he lacked 930,170, of a majority. The Southern vote was almost equally divided between Breckinridge and Bell. Had the vote of either been added to that of Douglas, he would have been elected, and secession warded off for perhaps another decade.

Election of Lincoln.

Anything that endangers the stability of government causes the price of securities to fall. Capital is always timid, and responds as readily to political influences as mercury in the

thermometer to the heat or cold of the atmosphere. The election of Lincoln caused a decided fall in all kinds of securities. President Buchanan, evidently alarmed at the aspect of affairs, recommended, in his message to Congress, the recognition of the right of property in slaves, where slavery now existed; the right for the protection of such property in the Territories until they became States, with or without slavery; and a more effective and rigorous enforcement of the Fugitive Slave Law. But Buchanan went even farther than this. He declared that unless these rights were granted to the South, the Southern people would be justified in resisting the Federal government, and that there was no power under the Constitution to coerce a State to remain in the Union.

Effect of Lincoln's election.

It seems that the President forgot that self-preservation, with a nation, as with an individual, is the first law of nature. Had Andrew Jackson or Zachary Taylor been alive and President at this crisis, he would have said, "Gentlemen, you may try to secede, but you can't do it; for, if you try, I shall march an immense army against you; I shall collect the revenue; I shall protect the Federal property; I shall organize State governments in your several States, for more than half your people are Unionists; I shall see that representatives are sent to both houses of Congress. So, gentlemen, you perceive that secession is impossible." Prompt and determined action of this kind would have nipped secession in the bud.

Buchanan's weakness.

As was to be expected, Buchanan's recommendations were condemned by both parties. The strife was continued in Congress; and the South secured what it wanted, — time for preparation and organization. Had an energetic military man been at the head of the government instead of a constitutional lawyer, secession might have been warded off for a long time; but the struggle was bound to come sooner or later.

There is no doubt that the great majority of the people loved the American Union with a passionate devotion. It

was this Union which made the United States a great power among the nations of the earth, and caused its citizens to be respected wherever they traveled or sojourned. The foes of freedom, the friends of despotism, hailed the disruption of the American Republic with joy and thanksgiving. The chief organ of Toryism in England exclaimed with delight, "The Great Republic is no more."

And yet, when the election of Lincoln took place, the abolitionists did not comprise a tenth of the Northern people; nor did the Secessionists, even in the cotton States, amount to a majority of the slaveholders. But both these parties were sincere, and determined to accomplish their purposes. Between these two hostile forces stood the vast majority of the people strongly attached to the union of States. As usual in such a condition of affairs, the men of fixed principles, good or bad, knew exactly what they wanted, and went to work with zeal and energy to accomplish the ends they had in view.

In the meantime, the Unionists in Congress directed all their efforts, during the winter of 1860 and 1861, to prevent secession.

Efforts to prevent secession.

The Crittenden Compromise yielded up everything that the South had ever asked for: an amendment to the Constitution to establish slavery south of 36°, 30′; to prevent Congress from abolishing slavery; and to permit slaveholders to carry their slaves into the free States. Such was the eagerness of the majority to purchase union at any price, that these concessions would have passed both houses had not the representatives from the cotton States deserted their seats in Congress. In point of fact, the North virtually prostrated herself before the South, and humbly begged her to remain in the Union; but the latter treated her stronger sister with sovereign contempt.

States voting for secession.

Ordinances of secession were passed in the seven cotton States by very large majorities, as follows: South Carolina, Dec. 20, 1860; Florida, Jan. 7, 1861; Mississippi, Jan. 9; Alabama, Jan. 11; Georgia, Jan. 19; Louisiana, Jan. 25; and Texas, Feb. 5. These

States seized all the United States property within reach, including forts and arsenals. All the Federal office holders resigned. Still, in spite of this robbery, the Union men of the North and of the border States hoped and worked for peace. They made every effort possible to prevent disruption. A convention of delegates from the seven seceding States met at Montgomery, Ala., and formed a provisional government, which they called The Confederate States of America. Jefferson Davis of Mississippi was chosen provisional President, and Alexander H. Stephens of Georgia Vice President.

Provisional government at Montgomery.

Major Robert Anderson was stationed at Fort Moultrie with a small garrison. Late in December, 1860, he moved his force to Fort Sumter in Charleston Harbor, because it was better adapted for defense. The Secessionists, meanwhile, continued to erect batteries and make preparations for war. Commissioners from South Carolina sought an audience with Mr. Buchanan for the purpose of securing a division of the United States property; but the President refused to see them unless they came as citizens of the United States. A feeble attempt was made by the Federal government to reënforce Major Anderson. A small steamer, the Star of the West, was sent to Charleston Harbor with provisions and a few recruits; but she was fired at by the rebels, and compelled to retire. Thus the garrison were left during the winter to consume their small store of provisions, and to remain inactive, at the mercy of an enemy who day by day grew stronger and more determined.

Major Anderson.

Three new States were admitted into the Union during Buchanan's administration — Minnesota in 1858, Oregon in 1859, and Kansas in 1861.

Minnesota, Oregon, and Kansas admitted.

CHAPTER XLI.

LINCOLN'S ADMINISTRATION (1861-1865).

"Wise men ne'er sit and wail their loss,
But cheerly seek how to redress their harms.
What though the mast be now blown overboard,
The cable broke, the holding anchor lost,
And half our sailors swallowed in the flood?
Yet lives our pilot still."

ABRAHAM LINCOLN, as a man, as an orator, and as a statesman, was one of the most remarkable men that ever lived. Next to Washington he holds the first place in the American heart. Born and reared in poverty, accustomed from childhood to the hardest toil, self-instructed, in spite of difficulties almost insurmountable, he rose step by step, by force of genius, from the position of rail splitter to that of attorney, and from attorney to the chief magistracy of the republic. His rise sounds more like romance than reality. He first came into notice in his celebrated contest against Stephen A. Douglas for a seat in the United States Senate from the State of Illinois; and although the latter was successful, Lincoln had manifested in his addresses such masterly ability and elevation of character, that the Republican convention made him its nominee for the presidency over the heads of such statesmen as Seward, Chase, and Sumner.

Lincoln.

Lincoln's rise to power.

Late in February he started out from his humble home in Springfield, Ill., to assume the great office to which he had been constitutionally elected. Everywhere on his journey to Washington he was received with honor by the loyal people. Rumors, however, only too well founded, had reached the ears of his friends, that under cover of a mob certain Secessionists in Baltimore intended to assassinate him. But he managed to elude his enemies, and reached the capital in safety. Then arose fears of tumults at his inauguration; but it passed off without disturbance. In his inaugural address the President distinctly announced that disunion was a physical impossibility; that the institution of slavery where it existed should not be disturbed; that the Fugitive Slave Law should be enforced; that he would use the power which inhered in his office to hold and occupy the property and places that belonged to the Federal government; and that he would collect the duties and imposts. Beyond the performance of these duties there would be, he assured the Secessionists, no invasion of any State.

Lincoln's inaugural.

President Lincoln's inaugural address showed that he was exceedingly anxious to avoid the horrors of civil war. For nearly three weeks his administration hesitated to act, in the hope that something might turn up to ward off the impending struggle. In the meantime, two Confederate commissioners arrived in Washington, and sought an interview with the President, for the purpose of adjusting friendly relations between the United States and the Confederate government. But President Lincoln informed them that he could not receive them except as citizens of the United States.

Lincoln anxious for peace.

The Confederate government manifested no real desire for peace. While talking peace for the purpose of gaining time, it was actively preparing for war, seizing and arming forts, raising and equipping soldiers, and firing the Southern heart to resist the Federal government. It was granting commissions to

Secessionists anxious for war.

officers who had been educated at the expense of the people of the United States, and who had taken an oath to defend the Constitution and government.

Finally, on the 21st of March, the Federal government, finding that it would be folly to delay action any longer, resolved to provision and reënforce Fort Sumter; to adopt vigorous measures to suppress the rebellion; to collect and equip a fleet of war vessels as rapidly as possible and to send them to the Southern States, under sealed orders.

The Confederate government, always thoroughly informed of every intended movement by the United States, was resolved to anticipate the reënforcement of Fort Sumter by immediately assuming the offensive. On the 12th of April, General Beauregard, commander of all the forces in and around Charleston, demanded the surrender of the fort; and, on Major Anderson's refusal, he opened fire from a great number of heavy guns. The little garrison replied with vigor, until the ammunition was exhausted and the fort in ruins. The bombardment was continued for thirty-four hours, when Major Anderson was compelled to surrender, and was allowed to march out with all the honors of war. The United States vessels of war lying outside the harbor were unable to render the least assistance.

Fall of Fort Sumter.

Beauregard.

In the beginning of the Civil War the Confederates made two great mistakes. The first was the declaration of Vice President Stephens that "slavery was the corner-stone of the Confederate Republic;" and the second was the adoption of the stars and bars instead of the stars and stripes. A real republican form of government based on human slavery was simply an impossibility. Neither France nor England, nor any other enlightened European government, dared to acknowledge the independence of a slave republic. Napoleon III. and the English Tories de-

Firing on the stars and stripes.

sired the independence of the Southern States, but feared to help them as France helped the United States during the Revolutionary War. When the news of the firing on the American flag reached the North, the submissive patience of a great people, which the "fire eaters" had mistaken for cowardice, was completely exhausted. Indignation and wrath filled the hearts of the vast majority in the free States. Democrats and Republicans vied with each other in their eagerness to punish those who had dared to fire on the American flag.

The war for the Union.

From 1800 to 1860, and even to the time of the adoption of the amendments to the Federal Constitution, the history of the United States is, to a very great extent, the history of the slavery question. Legislation by the general government was largely molded by the slaveholders; and even the Mexican War was forced and waged for the purpose of extending slave territory. The great statesmen of the country clearly foresaw the impending struggle. Clay tried to ward it off by his compromises; and Webster prayed that the Union might not be destroyed in his day. Far-seeing statesmen felt that the great crime fastened on the Republic by Great Britain in 1619 could only be washed out in blood. Lincoln said that the nation could not endure half free and half slave; and Seward declared that the conflict between the two forces was irrepressible. Even the churches were split into proslavery and antislavery. Each tortured the Bible for texts to prove that human slavery was right or wrong. Conscientious and religious men, born and reared in the South, believed in slavery as a divine institution; a similar class in the North considered it a covenant with hell.

The admission of California as a free State, the result of the troubles in Kansas, and the election of Abraham Lincoln, revealed to the able and astute statesmen of the South that they could no longer rule the Federal government; and hence they were determined, if they could, to take the slave States out of the Union, to accept no more compromises, and to fight for what they deemed their independence.

Even Lincoln's submission, which went almost as far as Buchanan's, could not satisfy them. They fired on the flag of their country. They were hungry for the war. At last the North shook itself like a sleepy giant, roused by the blows received at Fort Sumter, and determined to give the cotton States all the war they wanted. In the beginning of the terrible contest, as the sequel will show, the nimble South struck the powerful but awkward North blow after blow, until the latter learned to use its great strength to advantage; and then it choked the South into absolute submission, and destroyed human slavery forever on this continent.

On April 15, Lincoln issued a proclamation calling on the several States to furnish seventy-five thousand militia to suppress the rebellion. The free States responded with great enthusiasm; but the slave States which had not yet seceded treated the call as an outrage against the sovereignty of the States, asserting that there was no power in the Constitution to coerce a State to remain in the Union.

Call for soldiers.

The first troops to reach Washington were from Pennsylvania. On the 18th of April several companies passed unmolested through Baltimore; but next day the 6th Massachusetts, in passing through the same city, were fiercely assailed by a mob of Secessionists numbering ten thousand men. Paving stones and brickbats were hurled from the house-tops, and revolvers were fired at the soldiers as they marched through the streets. Not until three of their number were killed and eight wounded did the troops fire into the mob.

The mayor of Baltimore and the governor of Maryland requested the President to find another route to Washington than that through their State. In the meantime, the Secessionists had destroyed telegraphic communication with the North, thus partially isolating the Federal government from its supporters. The legislature of Maryland met, and voted to remain in the Union; and on the 13th of May, General Benjamin F. Butler established himself in Baltimore. The

possession by the North of this border State was of great importance in the prosecution of the war for the Union. Before the end of May a large Northern army was established on the banks of the Potomac.

Two days after Lincoln's call for troops Virginia passed an ordinance of secession, and immediately set on foot expeditions, previously planned, for the capture of the arsenal at Harpers Ferry and the navy yard at Norfolk. The Federal officer in command at the former place partially destroyed the United States property, and retreated to Chambersburg. The Norfolk Navy Yard contained property of enormous value. It contained, besides munitions of war and naval stores, the *Merrimac*, the *Cumberland*, the *Germantown*, the *Plymouth*, the *Raritan* and many other vessels. These the Confederates resolved to capture.

Secession of Virginia.

Captain McCauley, the commandant, perceiving that he could not resist the superior force sent against him, ordered all the ships scuttled except the *Cumberland*. Captain Paulding arrived at Norfolk with a force of six hundred men on board the *Pawnee*, to supersede McCauley, and save the United States property; but he was too late to effect anything, as the vessels were sunk, or sinking, and the guns rendered useless. The navy yard was seized by the Secessionists, and afterwards officially handed over by Virginia to the Confederate government. Virginia ratified the ordinance of secession by an immense majority.

West Virginia runs north almost to Lake Erie, and separates to a great extent the Western from the Middle States. It was, therefore, incumbent on the Federal government to cut off this territory from the Confederacy. Its people were loyal to the Union, and resolved not to be dragged out of it. A convention met at Wheeling, May 13, and passed resolutions against the secession of Virginia; and a second convention, June 11, was held, at which it was unanimously determined that West Virginia should be set apart as a new State. As such, Jan. 26, 1863, it was

West Virginia admitted.

admitted into the Union by a vote of both houses of Congress, and approved by the President.

President Lincoln, April 27, issued a proclamation declaring a blockade of the Southern ports. He called for an additional force of forty-two thousand volunteers to serve for three years, and ordered the formation of ten new regiments to be added to the regular army. General Robert Patterson collected a large force of Pennsylvanians at Chambersburg. General George B. McClellan was made a major general, and placed in command of the Department of the Ohio; and General John C. Frémont, to whom a similar rank was given, was assigned to the Department of the West.

Preparation for war.

Tennessee at first by a large majority voted against secession; but after the firing on Fort Sumter, the legislature, May 6, passed an ordinance of secession which was submitted to the people, and apparently sanctioned. However, there is no doubt that the majority of the people were strongly in favor of the Union. East Tennessee, like West Virginia, was never under the influence of slavery, and was therefore strongly opposed to secession. But the voice of her inhabitants was not heard, nor were her votes counted; and thus a loyal State was virtually dragged out of the Union by the proslavery leaders. The case of North Carolina was nearly similar to that of Tennessee. At first the State was in favor of the Union; but the disunion party, which was the governing party, passed an ordinance of secession, May 20. The same precisely was done in Arkansas. The legislature first voted against, then for, secession. Eleven of the fifteen Southern States had now withdrawn from the Union.

Secession of Tennessee, North Carolina, and Arkansas.

The four border States attempted to preserve a position of neutrality. Delaware and Maryland were held with a strong hand by the Federal government; and Kentucky and Missouri became for a time the theater of war, and suffered severely, no matter which party was, for the time being, in the ascen-

dant. The opposing forces are now face to face, and ready to begin the most destructive, deadly, and gigantic civil war since the Thirty Years' War in Germany.

For the purpose of being near the scene of action, and of obtaining all the aid possible from the border States, the Confederate government was removed from Montgomery to Richmond, Va. East Tennessee was loyal to the Union. Kentucky and Missouri contained many active and determined Confederates, who were never able to coerce their States into secession. The lines between the North and the South were rapidly and firmly drawn. Southern merchants refused to pay Northern debts. All intercourse between the two sections was completely stopped.

Attitude of the border States.

Even in the border States, where neutrality was supposed to exist, United States stores of all kinds and munitions of war were seized without scruple, and turned over to the Confederates. United States property to the amount of many millions of dollars had been stolen in every State from Texas to Virginia. In Missouri an extra session of the legislature was convened, May 2, for the purpose of handing over to Governor Jackson, who strongly sympathized with the Secessionists, the entire control of the militia, and all the financial resources of the State. Accordingly, the United States arsenal in the western part of the State was seized, and used to arm and equip the Confederate forces under General Price.

CHAPTER XLII.

THE CIVIL WAR.

"Civil wars strike deepest of all into the manners of the people. They vitiate their politics; they corrupt their morals; they pervert even their natural taste and relish of equity and justice."

Events of 1861.

Lyon was a native of Connecticut, and a graduate of West Point. A true soldier and an ardent patriot, he quickly perceived the importance of holding the large city of St. Louis, where he was then stationed, a captain in the Federal service. Accordingly, on the night of April 20, he promptly removed the stores and munitions of war to Springfield, Ill. He armed a considerable body of German loyalists, which, added to the regiments already raised, mainly by the influence of Frank P. Blair, constituted an army of six thousand men. With this body of troops Lyon marched out of the city, surrounded the Confederates, and demanded their surrender. He captured twelve hundred prisoners, with all their arms and ammunition.

Lyon at St. Louis.

McClellan.

The Secessionists of St. Louis were so enraged that they murdered several Germans in cold blood. For two or three days the city was in danger of destruction by a mob of

citizens. General Harney, in chief command of the United States forces, entered into a compact with the Confederate general, Sterling Price, for the purpose of restoring tranquillity in the State. But as this was only a pretext to gain time to enable the Secessionists to carry out their plans, Harney was promptly superseded by Lyon, who had been raised to the rank of brigadier general. Governor Jackson then issued a proclamation calling for fifty thousand militia to protect the State from what he called an invasion.

As Nathaniel Lyon, with the aid of the loyal Germans, had saved the important city of St. Louis for the cause of the Union, so General McClellan, by a short and able campaign, had prevented West Virginia from falling into the hands of the Confederates. General Robert E. Lee, who had been assigned to the chief command of all the Confederate forces, was resolved, if possible, to expel the Union troops, and to restore to Virginia the territory which he thought of right belonged to it.

McClellan's campaign in West Virginia.

General McClellan, in command of the Department of the Ohio, arrived at Grafton on the 23d of June, and issued proclamations condemning the guerilla warfare conducted by the Confederates, and exhorting his own troops to abstain from pillage and outrage. He was determined to drive the Confederate generals, Pegram and Garnett, from their intrenched positions, the former at Rich Mountain, and the latter at Laurel Hill. Rosecrans was ordered to attack Pegram, who was compelled to surrender with his whole force of six hundred men. General McClellan then entered Beverly, and forced Garnett to retreat, and the latter, in a vain effort to rally his men, was shot and killed. Robert E. Lee now took command in person of a combined army of twenty thousand men, with the determination to expel the Unionists; but he was soon recalled to other duties, and West Virginia remained loyal throughout the war.

General Butler, who had been a lawyer and politician of some repute, was placed, May 22, in command of an army of fifteen thousand men, mostly raw recruits, at Fortress Monroe.

Opposed to him were Generals Huger and Magruder, with a force of twelve thousand Confederates. Some runaway slaves having entered Butler's camp, claimed protection from their masters, who tried to regain possession of them. But Butler, with the craft of his original profession, declared that since Virginia had become a foreign nation, waging war against the United States, and since slaves were considered property by their owners, this property was therefore "*contraband of war.*" This was a most happy and ingenious solution of a difficult question. Afterwards, throughout the war, colored refugees were called *contrabands.*

Butler at Fort Monroe.

Butler fought two little skirmishes, the one at Little Bethel, and the other at Big Bethel, in which, owing to mismanagement, the Union forces were defeated with the loss of two promising young officers, Major Theodore Winthrop and Lieutenant John T. Greble. The Confederates then retreated to Yorktown. Shortly afterwards Butler was superseded by General Wool.

Butler's defeats.

It was the main purpose of each side in the war to capture the other's capital. Hence Richmond and Washington were as strongly fortified as possible. When the latter was pronounced absolutely safe from capture by the Confederates, the politicians, who knew nothing of the art of war, raised the insane cry of "on to Richmond." In spite of General Scott's opinion to the contrary, a forward movement was urged by the Federal government. With the exception of one thousand regular soldiers, the Union army consisted of militia and raw recruits; and these, however brave, do not make troops that will stand firm under fire. They need constant drilling, and actual service. This the veteran hero of Lundys Lane knew much better than any lawyer in the War Department.

"On to Richmond."

The Confederate force was divided into two armies. The larger, under Beauregard, was stationed along the line of Bull Run, which was crossed by several fords and a stone bridge.

The smaller was under Joseph E. Johnston; and he so placed his army of nine thousand men that he could watch the operations of General Patterson, who commanded eighteen thousand troops, chiefly Pennsylvanians. Patterson was expected to hold Johnston in check while General McDowell marched against Beauregard.

McDowell's campaign.

The plan of campaign of the Union army was to march to Fairfax Court House, then suddenly turn southward, and occupy the enemy's line of communication. On the 16th of July the Federal army moved in four divisions, under Generals Tyler, Hunter, Heintzleman, and Mills. McDowell, from the nature of the ground, finding himself unable to turn the right flank of the Confederate army, spent two days in reconnoitering. On the 18th of July General Tyler encountered the enemy at Blackburns Ford, across the Bull Run, but so strongly guarded that after a sharp cannonading he was obliged to retire to his camp at Centreville. McDowell's army lay in camp on the 19th and 20th; and early on the morning of July 21 the celebrated battle of Bull Run, or Manassas, was fought. "It was one of the best-planned and worst-fought battles of the war." The two armies being composed mainly of raw recruits, the result depended upon which side would stand firmest under fire. The Confederates fought on ground of their own choosing, and the Federals were forced to attack. The Union defeat, however, may be attributed, in great measure, to the fact that Patterson allowed Johnston to deceive and outgeneral him; so that at the critical moment the latter slipped away and joined Beauregard, who had been virtually defeated. A panic then seized the Federal army, which fled pellmell into Washington. Had not the Confederates also been panic-stricken they might have captured Washington. One good result followed: the "on to Richmond" shriekers were silenced for a time.[1]

Battle of Bull Run.

[1] Much space has been given to this battle for several reasons. It taught the lesson that brave men without discipline are very poor soldiers, that statesmen, editors, and lawyers are not generals, and that war is both an art and a science.

The day following the disastrous battle of Bull Run, General George B. McClellan was called from West Virginia, where he had been very successful in driving out the Confederates, to take command of the Army of the Potomac; and on General Scott's retirement at his own request, McClellan was made commander in chief. He instantly set to work to reorganize the army, reduce it to discipline, send home the three months' men, and place it in good fighting condition.

McClellan commander in chief.

In the meantime, Congress assembled in extra session, July 4, and passed several bills of great importance. One called for five hundred thousand volunteers; another authorized the Secretary of the Treasury, Salmon P. Chase, to borrow $250,000,000; another confiscated the property used for insurrectionary purposes by persons engaged in rebellion, and emancipated all slaves employed in the cause of secession. Resolutions were also passed declaring it no part of the duty of Federal soldiers to capture and return fugitive slaves, and asserting that the sole cause of the war was to preserve the Union and the Constitution.

Congress at work.

General Lyon organized a force of two thousand men, and marched out to meet the enemy, whom he found at Booneville, and completely routed. Jackson then fled eighty miles toward the southwest, and received a reënforcement of nearly four thousand men, under the command of General Price. This force was pursued by General Lyon twenty-three miles farther south. Here the Confederate force was confronted by Colonel Franz Sigel, at the head of one thousand five hundred troops, who, finding his men greatly outnumbered, slowly retreated in good order, using his artillery with great effect, and inflicting considerable damage on the enemy.

Lyon and Sigel in Missouri.

The Confederates being reënforced by a large body of troops from Arkansas, Sigel continued his retreat with masterly skill, until he joined his force with that of General Lyon, then at Springfield. The majority of the people of Mis-

souri being in favor of the Union, the legislature met and formally deposed Governor Jackson and his associates, and elected Gamble, a Unionist, in his place.

General Lyon, learning that the Confederates in great force were advancing against him in two columns, one from the south, and the other from the west, resolved to attack the former before it could form a junction with the latter. Accordingly, he marched out of Springfield with a small army consisting of five thousand five hundred infantry, four hundred cavalry, and eighteen guns. He encountered McCulloch, at the head of a superior force, and completely routed him. Returning to Springfield, he prepared to meet the much stronger army under Price, who was stationed along Wilsons Creek, about ten miles south. Lyon then sent Sigel out with a small force to attack Price in the rear, while he himself led the attack in front.

Lyon's victory.

At first the Confederates fled before Sigel; but afterwards, discovering how small his force was, they attacked him with overwhelming numbers, so that two thirds of his troops were destroyed. In the meantime, Lyon repeatedly attacked the Confederate army, and was as often driven back by greatly superior numbers. The brave Lyon was twice wounded, but refused to leave the field. He received a third wound, which proved mortal. Shortly after the death of Lyon, the enemy, who had begun to retreat, reappeared, and a fierce engagement took place along the whole line. At length, for lack of ammunition, the Federals were forced to retreat. Taking into account the great disparity in numbers, the Union army covered itself with glory.

Death of Lyon.

Although General John C. Frémont had been appointed to command the Department of the West in May, he did not reach his headquarters until the latter part of July. He found Missouri in a frightful condition, overrun with guerillas and desperadoes of every description, the State groaning under the weight of two

Frémont's campaign in Missouri.

governments, each claiming to be legal; and, worst of all, the three months' soldiers clamoring for their pay, and anxious to reach their homes. Frémont found his whole effective force to consist of twenty-three thousand men, which was increased by the middle of September to fifty-six thousand. He began at once to fortify the most important positions, St. Louis, Cape Girardeau, Rollaster, and Jefferson City. He then issued his celebrated proclamation emancipating the slaves of all men found in arms against the government of the United States.

Frémont.

President Lincoln, fearing to lose the sympathy and services of Union men in the border States, wrote a private letter to Frémont, requesting him to modify his proclamation so as to be in accord with the bill passed by Congress, August 6. This Frémont refused to do. He respectfully asked the President, as commander in chief, to make such changes as he thought necessary. The proclamation was accordingly modified by the President.

Frémont's difficulties at this time were almost insurmountable. Lexington was held by a small force under Colonel Mulligan, who, after an heroic and obstinate defense, was compelled to surrender. Owing to bad roads and heavy rains the commanding general was unable to assist him. General Grant at Cairo and General Anderson in Kentucky, were calling loudly for reënforcements. At the same time Frémont received an order to forward five thousand men to Washington. Being joined by Pope, Hunter, and McKinstry, Frémont assumed the aggressive, and gained several slight advantages over the Confederates; and just as he was prepared, in spite of every difficulty, to drive Price, whom he had outgeneraled, out of the State, he was superseded by General David Hunter. But before Hunter could achieve anything of note, General Henry W.

Frémont is superseded.

Halleck was appointed to the command of the Department of Missouri.

The Confederacy was composed almost entirely of an agricultural people who had known little, and cared less, for manufactures; and hence, for many important articles necessary for the successful prosecution of the war, they were compelled to rely on the productions of foreign nations — chiefly of England and France. It was therefore incumbent on the Federal government to establish and maintain as perfect a blockade of the Southern ports as possible under the circumstances. The coast line from Virginia to the western part of Texas is exceedingly long, and the United States navy was at that time very small.

Blockade of Southern ports.

At this period there is no doubt that the French emperor, Louis Napoleon, and the British aristocracy, strongly sympathized with the South, and ardently desired the success of the Confederacy. They wished to see the Great Republic rent in two. But they were restrained from forming alliances offensive and defensive with the government at Richmond by fear of the effect on the mass of the common people in both countries, who hated slavery and loved liberty.

Owing to the inefficiency of the blockade, many privateers made their way to the ocean, and preyed on Northern merchantmen, in spite of the efforts of the Federal government to prevent them. One of the principal outlets for the "blockade-runners" was Hatteras Inlet, the chief entrance to Pamlico Sound. Toward the end of August, General B. F. Butler, in command of eight hundred soldiers, and Commander Silas Stringham, with a large naval force, sailed from Fortress Monroe, and reached the Confederates strongly fortified at the Inlet. After a fierce bombardment by the Union forces, the Confederates to the number of seven hundred, were compelled to surrender unconditionally. The secret being well kept, great numbers of privateers returning with their prey fell quietly into the hands of the Federals. A second expedition much

Hatteras Inlet and Port Royal.

stronger and better equipped than the first, under the command of Thomas W. Sherman, and the naval part of it under Commander Samuel F. Dupont, was sent against Port Royal, S.C., which, after a fierce contest lasting five hours, fell into the hands of the Federal forces.

Capture of Mason and Slidel.

Captain Wilkes of the United States steamship *San Jacinto* overhauled the British ship *Trent*, which had on board the Confederate emissaries, Mason and Slidel, who were on their way to France and England to effect, if possible, treaties of alliance with those two powerful nations. Wilkes demanded their surrender, which the captain of the *Trent* was powerless to refuse. They were immediately transferred to the *San Jacinto*, taken to the United States, and imprisoned in Fort Warren in Boston Harbor. Although this act of Wilkes was justifiable under the proclamation of Queen Victoria, which forbade English vessels from carrying officers and dispatches for either party in the war, yet England immediately demanded their surrender. There was great excitement in both countries. Many ardent Americans advised the government to refuse the demand of Great Britain. But William H. Seward, the Secretary of State, very wisely surrendered Mason and Slidell and their secretaries, rather than to give the British aristocracy an excuse for forming an alliance with the Confederacy.

Battle of Balls Bluff.

As previously mentioned, the Confederates had failed to follow up their victory at Bull Run, and had fallen back to Centreville and Manassas, where they remained face to face with a large army under the command of General McClellan, which occupied Fairfax Court House. On the 20th of October, General Charles P. Stone, in command of the upper Potomac, sent Colonels Devens and Lee across the river to surprise a Confederate camp in the direction of Leesburg. No sooner had they landed than they were assailed on three sides by the Confederate force concealed in a piece of woods. The Union force fell back to the bluff, where they were reënforced by Colonel Baker, who assumed the

command. A desperate struggle was carried on for several hours, in which Baker was killed, and the Federal force lost one thousand men. This disaster was nearly as bad as that of Bull Run and tended to discourage all lovers of the Union.

William Tecumseh Sherman, one of the greatest generals the world has ever known, succeeded General Anderson in Kentucky. But owing to various causes, he was unable to accomplish anything of note. He was the first to realize the immensity of the contest between the North and the South, and the enormous amount of money and the vast number of soldiers it would require to suppress this greatest of civil wars; and for his free expression of opinion, he very nearly lost the opportunity of serving his country. He was charged with insanity and for some time was distrusted by those in authority.

Sherman and Grant.

General Ulysses S. Grant, the most successful of all the Union generals, and the most resolute commander in either army, possessed the fine quality of silence even under great provocation. Slowly and with great difficulty these two men attained the command of armies. They were often in danger of supersession or dismissal. Fortunately for them they were remote from the political intrigues at Washington.

The first we hear of General Grant is in connection with the important post at Cairo which he commanded. The ex-bishop, General Polk, was in command of a large force on the other side of the Mississippi at Belmont. Grant, with a small force, moved down the river, crossed over, and boldly attacked a force much larger than his own. He carried the enemy's camp by assault, captured several of their guns, and drove the Confederates over the bluff into the river. But in the moment of victory, Polk sent a reënforcement of five thousand men, and turned his heavy guns at Columbus against the Union army. Grant fought his way successfully to his own camp, after inflicting a loss of eight hundred men to the enemy, while he lost but half that number. In this brilliant action Grant had his horse shot under him.

Grant at Belmont.

Toward the close of 1861, the contest in the west was chiefly a guerrilla warfare, victory sometimes inclining to one side and sometimes to the other. But no matter which side was temporarily in the ascendant, the people of the border States were sure to suffer. Except the battle of Pea Ridge, won by Generals Curtis and Sigel, nothing of importance occurred bearing on the great struggle for the Union. It is almost impossible, as it is unnecessary, to follow the many little combats and skirmishes which occurred at this time in the States of Missouri, Kentucky, and Tennessee.

Burnside in North Carolina.

As many, if not a majority, of the people of North Carolina were loyal to the Union, the Federal administration, in the hope of regaining the State, and of acquiring a firm foothold in the rear of the Confederate force in Virginia, fitted out, January 13, an expedition consisting of eleven thousand soldiers under the command of General Burnside, and a fleet of thirty-one gunboats mounting ninety-four guns under the command of Commodore Goldsborough. Early in February they captured Roanoke Island, and most of the garrison of three thousand men were taken prisoners. The Confederate gunboats were set on fire to prevent their falling into the hands of the Unionists. One by one the forts defending New Berne were captured. The town was garrisoned by five thousand soldiers, who, after one hour's severe fighting, fled to Goldsborough. The Federal forces captured sixty-nine cannon and five hundred prisoners. The campaign was completely successful.

The Merrimac's victories.

The *Merrimac*, a United States frigate, had been scuttled and sunk at the time of the evacuation of Norfolk by its commander. The hull being little injured, the Confederates raised her and covered her sides and deck with a shield of railroad iron sloping upward like the roof of a house. She seemed a most formidable structure, with her great iron prow several feet under water. On the 8th of March, the Confederate monster, heavily armed with one hundred pound Armstrong guns, proceeded from

Norfolk to Newport News where the United States frigates lay at anchor. The broadsides from the frigates made no impression on the slanting roof of the *Merrimac*, nor were the Union batteries on the shore any more effective. The monster's iron prow struck and sank the *Cumberland;* the *Congress* was run ashore, and after some hard fighting was compelled to surrender.

The *Merrimac* then commenced to attack the *Minnesota* and the *St. Lawrence;* but she was unable to approach within a mile of them, owing to the shallowness of the water. Having done all the damage possible, in the evening she returned to Norfolk. Next morning she renewed the attack against the *Minnesota*, and while firing away at the Union frigate, a little *craft*, whose deck was almost on a level with the sea, having a small round tower containing two guns, boldly threw herself between the combatants, and opened fire on the *Merrimac*. This little vessel was constructed by the genius of John Ericsson, and was commanded by Lieutenant Worden.

Now began the most singular naval combat on record. It was David and Goliath over again. The *Merrimac*, in changing her position to face this new and unexpected foe, went aground. The two vessels fought furiously, the shot from the *Merrimac* doing little damage, while that from the *Monitor* made three holes in the armor of the larger vessel. The *Monitor* was able to sail round and round her enemy, pouring in deadly discharges until the monster was in danger of sinking. Finally she was compelled to seek safety in flight. This was the last of the *Merrimac*. She never ventured to sea again.

The Merrimac and the Monitor.

CHAPTER XLIII.

THE CIVIL WAR—Continued.

"He's truly valiant that can wisely suffer
The worst that man can breathe, and make his wrongs
His outsides; to wear them like his raiment carelessly;
And ne'er prefer his injuries to his heart
To bring it into danger."

Events in the East, 1862.

No other commanding general in either army has received so much praise and censure as George B. McClellan. By one party he has been denounced as disloyal to the Union, and by the other as the "Young Napoleon" of the war. Doubtless the truth lies between the two extremes. It can be said, without the fear of contradiction, that he was a thorough organizer; that he made out of raw material a splendid army; and that he was sincerely loved by the men whom he commanded. In following his campaigns the truth will be impartially told.

McClellan.

The people of the North were impatient for a forward movement. They had grown tired of the reiterated statement, "All quiet along the Potomac." Finally, President Lincoln, early in 1862, issued an order for a forward movement of the armies east and west. The new Secretary of War, a lawyer named Edwin M. Stanton who had succeeded Simon Cameron, prepared a plan of campaign by which the army was to move forward in a direct line from Manassas Junction to Richmond. McClellan knew that every mile of this road was strongly fortified, and that he would be obliged to cross several rivers in face of a vigilant and active enemy.

The plan adopted by McClellan and his lieutenants was to make the capital absolutely safe by leaving a force strong

enough to repel any attack of the enemy; to place a large force of observation at Manassas Junction, and then to transport the main body to Fortress Monroe. McClellan made his first mistake in laying siege to Yorktown, which was garrisoned by only ten thousand troops under General Magruder. Here he wasted a whole month, and thus gave the Confederates ample time to collect all their forces for the protection of Richmond. He, with sixty thousand men and one hundred guns, should have carried the place by assault. Magruder, choosing his own time, retreated slowly up the peninsula.

Plan of campaign.

At Jamestown, Hooker overtook the enemy, and alone for several hours he fought a desperate battle against vastly superior numbers, until reënforced by Kearny and Hancock. The Confederates were driven from their intrenchments, and forced to retreat.

Battle of Jamestown.

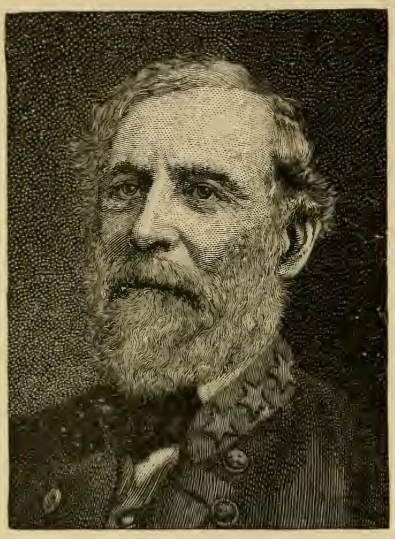
From Yorktown to Richmond by the York River route the ground is full of swamps and morasses; and to add to the natural difficulty the season had been very rainy. The Union general was therefore compelled to construct miles of roads and several bridges.

At length, toward the end of May, McClellan threw two corps comprising his left wing across the Chickahominy, near White Oak Swamp, while his center and right remained on the north side of the river. By this movement he exposed himself to be defeated in detail. Even then, so inadequately was Richmond defended, that the approach of the Federal army created such a panic that the people were making preparations to fly from the city. There is little doubt that a vigorous assault at this time would have carried the Confederate capital and virtually ended the war.

Seven Pines and Fair Oaks.

In the meantime, General Joseph E. Johnston had thrown a force of fifty thousand men into the intrenchments in front of Richmond. The *Merrimac* had been blown up about eight miles below the city; and this, with other obstructions, made it impossible for the Federal gun-

boats to approach the Confederate capital. General Johnston made a bold and determined attack, May 31, upon the two corps on the south side of the Chickahominy. Two fiercely contested battles took place, one at Seven Pines, and the other at Fair Oaks; but neither was decisive. The Confederate general was wounded, so that for some time he was unfit for active duty. He was succeeded by General Smith who held the chief command for three days, when he was stricken with apoplexy. General Robert E. Lee was then made commander of the Confederate army of northern Virginia. It is thought that if McClellan had followed up these battles he could have captured Richmond.



Lee.

While these events were occurring before Richmond, the Confederate general, Thomas J. Jackson, commonly known as "Stonewall" Jackson, one of the most active and able officers produced on either side during the war, by a series of most brilliant movements, with only sixteen thousand troops under his command, managed to hold four armies in check, so that not one of them could be sent to McClellan who was constantly crying out for reënforcements. These armies, under McDowell, Shields, Frémont and Banks, amounted to sixty thousand men. Jackson attacked Banks, and drove him in hot haste down the Shenandoah Valley, and through Winchester. Banks never ceased his flight until he

"Stonewall" Jackson.

was twelve miles beyond Martinsburg. Jackson captured a large number of guns and prisoners.

McDowell, Shields, and Frémont now placed their armies in such positions as to intercept and destroy the Confederate force before it could receive reënforcements, or effect its escape to Richmond. Frémont reached Strasburg, June 1, to find that Jackson had passed through it a few hours before. Shields's and Frémont's joint forces were greatly impeded by swollen streams and burnt bridges. Being severely pressed by a superior force, Jackson ordered Ewell, commanding his rear guard of five thousand men, to halt and take a strong position at Union Church. Frémont's division reached Cross Keys, June 7, where a severe contest took place, in which the Confederates were successful. At Port Republic, Jackson attacked Shields's division, and drove it back five miles, capturing four hundred and fifty prisoners. The Union forces were then recalled to Washington, and Jackson leisurely pursued his march to Richmond. So rapid were his movements in this brilliant campaign, that his troops received the epithet of "foot cavalry."

"Stonewall" Jackson.

Jackson's victories.

Up to the end of June there had been several skirmishes between the two great armies, but nothing of importance until the 26th, when a strong Confederate force under Stonewall Jackson attacked Fitz John Porter's corps at Mechanicsville. After a desperate battle, which lasted six hours, the enemy were de-

Mechanicsville and Gaines Mill.

feated, and withdrew. The next morning McClellan ordered General Porter to fall back to Gaines Mill, in order to protect the bridges across the Chickahominy. Here Robert E. Lee brought two thirds of his entire army into action. To oppose this army of sixty thousand men, Porter had only thirty-five thousand.

While this unequal contest was going on McClellan had sixty thousand troops unemployed on the south side of the river watching twenty-five thousand Confederates. In spite of desperate fighting by the Union soldiers, Porter was overwhelmed, and driven back by force of numbers. The Union loss in this battle was about eight thousand. During the night the Federal army retreated to Savage Station, where it was attacked by Magruder, but without success. McClellan was now cut off from his base of supplies at West Point. The Federal force then fell back upon White Oak Swamp (June 30), where the battle raged with unabated fury. McClellan's aim was to reach the James River, in order to secure the protection and aid of the gunboats, and establish a new base of supplies.

Savage Station and White Oak Swamp.

In the meantime, the principal Confederate generals, Lee, Jackson, Hill, Longstreet, and even Jefferson Davis himself, made the most strenuous efforts at Glendale and Nelson Farm to prevent McClellan from accomplishing his purpose. There was fierce and determined fighting on both sides.

Glendale and Nelson Farm.

The Confederates maintained their assaults on Porter's corps, with the intention of destroying it before it could effect a junction with the main body on the south side of the Chickahominy. Afraid of the possible escape of the Federal army, the Confederate generals strained every nerve to destroy it before it could reach the James River, where it would be under the protection of the gunboats. At last, on July 1, the beaten, wearied, and exhausted army reached its assigned position on Malvern Hill, a plateau about a mile and a half long, pro-

THE CIVIL WAR.
By Russell Hinman, C.E.
0 50 100 150 200 250 Miles
Longitude West of
96° 94° 92° 90° 88°
40° 38° 36° 34° 32° 30° 28°
ILLINOIS
INDIANA
KENTUCKY
TENNESSEE
MISSOURI
ARKANSAS
MISSISSIPPI
ALABAMA
LOUISIANA
TEXAS
Ozark Mountains
Missouri River
Mississippi River
Ohio River
Arkansas River
Red River
Tennessee River
Cumberland River
Kaskaskia R.
Illinois River
Wabash R.
Green River
Kanawha R.
Big Sandy R.
Licking R.
Kentucky R.
Cumberland Mts.
Cumberland Gap
Big Black R.
Yazoo R.
Pearl River
Tombigbee R.
Alabama R.
Chattahoochee R.
Flint R.
Ocmulgee R.
Oconee R.
Savannah R.
Coosa R.
Tallapoosa R.
Tuscaloosa
Montgomery
Selma
Mobile
Pensacola
Tallahassee
Columbus
Macon
Augusta
Milledgeville
Greenville
Sparta
Knoxville
Nashville
Louisville
Cincinnati
Indianapolis
Terre Haute
Vincennes
Evansville
Springfield
Peoria
Chicago
Quincy
Alton
Cairo
Memphis
Vicksburg
Natchez
Jackson
Meridian
New Orleans
Lake Pontchartrain
Lake Borgne
Lake Maurepas
Lake Ponchartrain
Lake Barataria
Lake Calcasieu
Lake Sabine
Galveston
Sabine Pass
Galveston Bay
Matagorda Bay
Corpus Christi
Rio Grande
Brownsville
Matamoras
Ringgold Barracks
Fort Brown
Fort Polk
Fort Jackson
Fort St. Philip
Fort Morgan
Fort Pickens
Fort Barrancas
Fort McRee
Fort Wood
Fort Sumter
Fort Moultrie
Fort Johnson
Fort Pulaski
Fort Clinch
Fort Taylor
Fort Jefferson
Fort Macon
Fort Caswell
Fort Hatteras
Fort Monroe
Fort Norfolk
Fort Delaware
Fort Mifflin
Fort Washington
Fort Lafayette
Fort Hamilton
Fort Schuyler
Fort Trumbull
Fort Wolcott
Fort Adams
Fort Independence
Fort Warren
Fort Sullivan
Fort Knox
Fort Preble
Fort Gorges
Fort Constitution
Fort Stark
Fort Sullivan
Fort Mackinac
Fort Gratiot
Fort Niagara
Fort Ontario
Fort Wayne
Fort Dearborn
Fort Leavenworth
Fort Scott
Fort Riley
Fort Kearney
Fort Laramie
Fort Bridger
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Fort Vancouver
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Fort Colville
Fort Simcoe
Fort Yuma
Fort Tejon
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Fort Buchanan
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Fort Garland
Fort Massachusetts
Fort Defiance
Fort Wingate
Fort Webster
Fort Bliss
Fort Davis
Fort Clark
Fort Duncan
Fort Inge
Fort Lincoln
Fort Ripley
Fort Snelling
Fort Ridgely
Fort Abercrombie
Fort Pembina
Fort Randall
Fort Kearney
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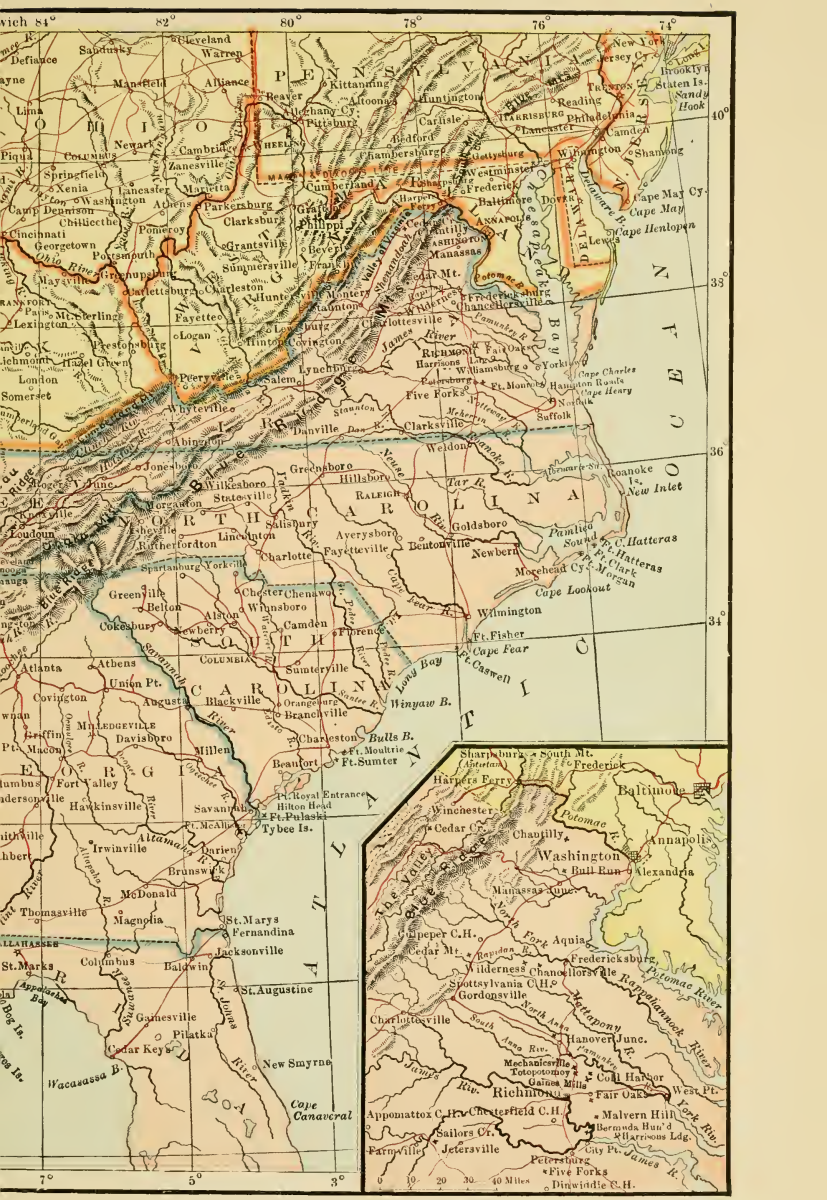
GULF OF MEXICO
Longitude West of Was
13° 11°


vich 84°
82°
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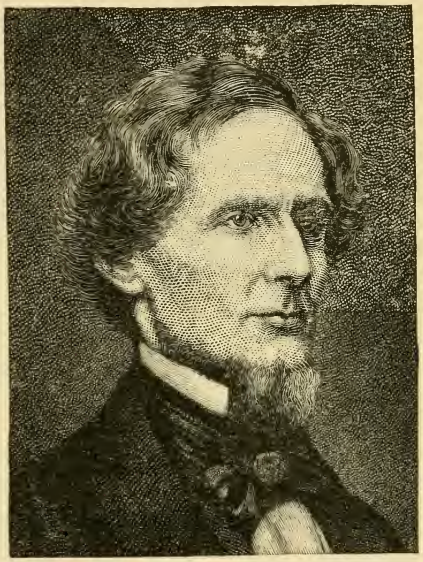
Cleveland
Sandusky
Warren
Defiance
Mansfield
Alliance
Beaver
Kittanning
Huntingdon
Reading
Trenton
New York
Jersey City
Brooklyn
Staten Is.
Sandy Hook
Lima
Pittsburg
Allegheny City
Harrisburg
Philadelphia
Lancaster
Camden
40°
Piqua
Columbus
Newark
Cambridge
Wheeling
Carlisle
Bedford
Chambersburg
Gettysburg
Wilmington
Shamong
Springfield
Zanesville
Xenia
Lancaster
Marietta
Cumberland
Westminster
Frederick
Baltimore
Dover
Cape May Cy.
Camp Dennison
Washington
Athens
Parkersburg
Harper's Ferry
Annapolis
Cape May
Chillicothe
Clarksburg
Cincinnati
Pomeroy
Grantsville
Beverly
Manassas
Cape Henlopen
Georgetown
Portsmouth
Summersville
Lewis
Ohio River
Gallipolis
Charlestown
Frankfort
Mayesville
Charlottesville
Monterey
Staunton
Warrenton
Fredericksburg
Chancellorsville
Mt. Vernon
33°
Paris
Lexington
Mc Dowling
Fayette
Logan
Lewisburg
Hinton
Covington
Charlottesville
James River
Richmond
Fair Oaks
Harrisons
Williamsburg
Yorktown
Hazel Green
Peterstown
Lynchburg
Farmville
Ft. Monroe
Hampton Roads
Cape Charles
Cape Henry
Peery ville
Salem
Five Forks
Norfolk
London
Somerset
Whyteville
Danville
Clarksville
Suffolk
Abingdon
Weldon
Roanoke R.
36°
Jonesboro
Greensboro
Hillsboro
Roanoke Is.
New Inlet
Wilksboro
Statesville
Raleigh
Tar R.
Morganton
Salisbury
Goldsboro
Pamlico Sound
Asheville
Ayerysboro
Bentonville
Cape Hatteras
Lincolnton
Fayetteville
Ft. Clark
Rutherfordton
Newbern
Ft. Hatteras
Spartanburg
Charlotte
Morehead Cy.
Ft. Morgan
Yorkville
Cape Lookout
Greenville
Chester
Chenawa
Belton
Winnsboro
Wilmington
34°
Alston
Camden
Cokesbury
Newberry
Florence
Ft. Fisher
Cape Fear
Columbia
Sumterville
Cape Fear R.
Atlanta
Athens
Union Pt.
Augusta
Blackville
Orangeburg
Branchville
Winyaw B.
Covington
Charleston
Bulls B.
Milledgeville
Davisboro
Millen
Ft. Moultrie
Ft. Sumter
Beaufort
Fort Valley
Savannah
Ft. Royal Entrance
Hilton Head
Hawkinsville
Ft. Pulaski
Ft. McAllister
Tybee Is.
Irwinville
Darien
Brunswick
McDonald
Thomasville
Magnolia
St. Marys
Fernandina
Jacksonville
Tallahassee
St. Marks
Columbus
Baldwin
St. Augustine
Appalachee Bay
Gainesville
Pilatka
Cedar Keys
New Smyrna
Wacassasa B.
Cape Canaveral
7°
5°
3°
Sharpsburg
South Mt.
Antietam
Frederick
Harpers Ferry
Baltimore
Winchester
Potomac
Cedar Cr.
Chantilly
Annapolis
Washington
Bull Run
Alexandria
Manassas June.
Rappahannock
Culpeper C.H.
North Fork
Aquia
Cedar Mt.
Rapidan R.
Fredericksburg
Wilderness
Chancellorsville
Potomac River
Spottsylvania C.H.
Gordonsville
Hanover Junc.
Charlottesville
South Anna
Pamunkey River
Mechanicsville
Totopotomoy
Coal Harbor
Quinea Mills
Richmond
Fair Oaks
West Pt.
York River
Appomattox C.H.
Chesterfield C.H.
Malvern Hill
Bermuda Hund'd
Harrisons Ldg.
Sailors Cr.
City Pt.
James R.
Farmville
Jetersville
Petersburg
Five Forks
0 10 20 30 40 Miles
Dinwiddie C.H.

tected from the enemy by several almost impassable ravines. But in spite of all difficulties, the Confederates again and again charged up the hill, and were again and again driven back with frightful loss. Darkness put an end to the desperate fighting. The Union soldiers had gained a splendid victory, and there is little doubt that McClellan could have carried Richmond by assault; but instead of making the attempt, he ordered a retreat to Harrisons Landing. The North and South each found in the "Seven Days' Battles" "foemen worthy of their steel."

Battle of Malvern Hill.



Davis.

On July 8, General Lee withdrew his army into Richmond, not daring to attack McClellan in his strong position at Harrisons Landing. General McClellan, in a letter to the civil authorities, threw the blame on the politicians at Washington, who had prevented his receiving reënforcements. General Halleck had been called from the west, and made commander in chief of all the armies in the field. He now ordered McClellan to transport his troops to Aquia Creek, to support a new movement against Richmond from a base on the Rappahannock. Against this order McClellan in vain protested. His army was transported without further molestation.

McDowell's, Frémont's, and Banks's corps, with all the troops that could be collected, were formed into an army of fifty thousand men, called the Army of Virginia, and placed under the command of General John Pope who had done some good service under Halleck in the west. Pope's purpose was to cover Washington and coöperate with the Army of the Potomac, and then attack Richmond by the direct route. Lee, no longer fearing anything from McClellan, resolved to strike Pope before he could receive reënforcements from the Army of the Potomac.

Pope's campaign.

Pope issued his celebrated proclamation stating that "his headquarters would be henceforth in the saddle." On August 8, he sent out General Banks, with a corps of eight thousand men, to occupy Cedar Mountain, and take up a strong position to oppose the advance of Stonewall Jackson. But Banks was too late. Jackson had already crossed the Rapidan, and occupied the heights of Cedar Mountain with twenty-five thousand men so skillfully hidden, that Banks, with his greatly inferior force, attacked the Confederates. As a result of the Union general's miscalculation, his corps was almost destroyed, three of his generals were wounded and one was taken prisoner.

Banks's defeat at Cedar Mountain.

The cannonading was heard by Pope at Culpeper. He immediately ordered General Sigel to press forward to Banks's relief. But Jackson, having accomplished his purpose, rapidly recrossed the Rapidan. The two armies now confronted each other on the banks of the Rappahannock. The whole Confederate army was concentrated to destroy Pope. While in this position, General Stewart made a bold dash to the right and rear of the Union army, and captured Pope's headquarters, his dispatch book, and the baggage of his military family. Pope, learning that thirty thousand men from Aquia Creek were on their way to join him, determined to concentrate his army at Warrenton Junction, and there give battle.

Stonewall Jackson, on Aug. 26, passed around to the right and rear of Pope for the purpose of cutting off his communica-

tions with Washington. To accomplish this result his "foot cavalry" marched fifty-five miles in forty-eight hours, living, while on the march, on green corn. He destroyed great quantities of stores, and captured eight guns and three hundred men. Pope was resolved, if possible, to intercept his retreat; but Lee, perceiving Jackson's danger, sent Longstreet to his support. Their combined forces drove Ricketts from his position, and Jackson made good his escape through Thoroughfare Gap.

Jackson's retreat.

On Aug. 29, McDowell and King retreated to Manassas Junction. There was some very severe fighting at Groveton and Gainesville, in which the losses were about even. On the 30th, Pope renewed the battle by ordering General Fitz John Porter, who had failed to come into action the day before, to attack the enemy on the Warrenton turnpike. The attack, however, was feeble, and he was driven back in confusion. The Confederates then massed their forces, and drove the Union army back to Centreville. It then crossed Bull Run unpursued. Pope had now an army of sixty thousand men, with which he awaited the attack of the Confederates; but they left him unmolested.

Second Battle of Bull Run.

On the morning of Sept. 1, Jackson crossed Bull Run at Sudley Ford, and moved rapidly down to Fairfax Court House for the purpose of assailing the Union left. Amidst the roar of a terrible thunderstorm, a most desperate fight took place at Chantilly, in which the Federals were badly beaten, and Generals Stevens and Kearny were killed. Pope continued his retreat until he reached the defenses of Washington. Thus ended most ingloriously a campaign which was begun with so much parade and pomposity — a campaign which cost the Union thirty thousand of its best soldiers and a great number of its able officers.

Battle of Chantilly.

At this time the danger of invasion, and even of the capture, of the capital was imminent. Disunion, and some said disloyalty, among the principal officers, and discouragement and want of confidence among the common soldiers, seemed to bode

disaster to the great republic. Pope accused some of McClellan's officers of rendering him only a half-hearted support, and General Fitz John Porter of actual disobedience, for which Porter was court-martialed, and dismissed from the service — a most unjust sentence, under which he suffered for many years. The truth is, Pope was incompetent; and since he had been brought east by Halleck and Stanton, for the purpose of superseding McClellan, they were obliged to find a scapegoat; and this they found in General Porter.

Politics played an important part in this dangerous crisis of the war. The administration had virtually removed — at least, it had degraded — McClellan. It looked with a jealous eye on his popularity with the army. The antislavery men in the cabinet and elsewhere had no confidence in his fighting ability, and even doubted his loyalty; and yet, in this moment of extreme peril, when the very capital was in danger of capture — a capture which would have changed the whole aspect of the war — it was not Halleck nor Pope whom the administration called to save them, but the recently degraded McClellan. Lincoln, in spite of the adverse opinion of most of his advisers, requested McClellan to assume the chief command.

Restoration of McClellan.

Lee's effective army now amounted to only sixty thousand men; and yet with this force he undertook the invasion of Maryland, in the hope that he could so recruit his army as to capture Baltimore, and cut Washington off from communication with the North. He issued a proclamation inviting the men of Maryland to join his standard; but he enlisted only about five hundred men.

Lee's invasion of Maryland.

McClellan rapidly reorganized the demoralized armies in and about Washington into two effective forces, one under Banks, to guard the capital, and the other to take the field under himself. McClellan moved slowly on the Maryland side of the Potomac in five parallel lines. He entered Fredericksburg, which the Confederates had evacuated only two days before. Here an order of General Lee's fell into his hands,

which showed that the object of the Confederates was to capture Harpers Ferry, and that Jackson was already on his way to seize it. The Union general, instead of trying to save Harpers Ferry, moved northwestward toward Hagerstown, through the South Mountain range of hills, where a considerable battle was fought, Sept. 14, in which the Federal troops were successful.

Battle of South Mountain.

Lee's army was in great danger at this time; and had McClellan been able to move rapidly, he might have destroyed it before Jackson could have come to his aid. Jackson moved with his usual celerity to Harpers Ferry, which Colonel Miles held with about thirteen thousand men. The Confederate general opened fire on the garrison from Maryland and Bolivar Heights; and Miles surrendered his force, instead of holding this important position until relief could reach him. Had this inefficient officer held out for twenty-four hours, Lee's army, it is said, would have been destroyed.

Surrender of Harpers Ferry.

McClellan made no attack on the enemy until the afternoon of Sept. 16, thus giving the Confederate forces time to concentrate on the west side of Antietam Creek, near the town of Sharpsburg. When, therefore, the battle began, McClellan met the entire Confederate army, except A. P. Hill's division, which Jackson left behind to receive the surrender at Harpers Ferry. General Hooker (who had received from his soldiers the nickname of "Fighting Joe") was ordered by McClellan to make a long detour to the right, for the purpose of turning the enemy's left. Toward night Hooker and Jackson lay down to rest within a short distance of each other. The next morning, Sept. 17, the furious battle began on the Union right, with varying fortune. The scene of action was a cornfield and a plowed field. At first Jackson was driven back; then being reënforced by Hood's division, Hooker was forced to yield the ground he had gained. At this critical moment the Union general ordered Doubleday to send him his best brigade, Hartsuff's. The

Battle of Antietam.

Federals thus reënforced drove the Confederates from the field to the woods. Again were the Confederates reënforced, and again they captured the bloody cornfield. But the Federal batteries prevented the farther advance of the enemy.

General Franklin now appeared at the head of a fresh corps, and ordered two divisions, under Slocum and Smith, to charge the enemy, which they did in splendid style, driving them from the open space and through the woods. They held the ground thus gained to the end of the battle.

McClellan's victory.

Burnside was in command of the extreme left of the Federal line. He made several feeble attempts to carry the bridge in front of him, and attack the Confederate right. Finally he received a peremptory order to carry the bridge at all hazards. The Union troops then charged gallantly, and carried the bridge; but the advantage came too late. A. P. Hill's division coming into action drove Burnside's troops down the hill, where they were safe under the Union batteries until night put an end to the carnage.

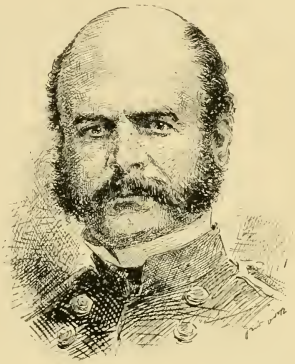
The Confederates refused to renew the fight, and Lee withdrew his army across the Potomac. Considering the demoralized condition of the Union forces, and the fine condition of the Confederate army, McClellan deserves great praise for the victory. He has been blamed for not following up Lee's retreating army; but that was impossible, for his men were in a most wretched condition for lack of clothing and other supplies, which, it is said, the Secretary of War purposely held back in order to find an excuse for McClellan's removal.

On the 30th of September, Lee fell back to Winchester with a formidable army. On the 6th of October, McClellan was ordered to cross the Potomac, to pursue and to give battle to the enemy. But he disobeyed because his army was not equipped for a winter campaign. Finally, he moved his army toward Warrenton; while Lee left his headquarters at Winchester, and marched in the same direction on the opposite side of the Blue Ridge Mountains. McClellan was just about to attack

McClellan superseded by Burnside.

the Confederate army when he was suddenly removed from his command, and ordered to report at Trenton, N. J. He was succeeded by General Burnside, who reluctantly assumed the position, confessing his inability to lead so large an army ; yet he forthwith attacked the Confederates at Fredericksburg.

This was hardly a battle; it was a slaughter of the Union troops. Burnside was not able to bring a quarter of his army into action. Lee had burned the bridges across the Rappahannock, and fortified the heights above Fredericksburg; and when the Union army reached the river there were no pontoons to enable them to cross. Lee had raised his army to eighty thousand men, whom he placed behind strong fortifications. When the pontoons arrived, Lee permitted them to be laid without molestation, thus inviting the Union army into a death-trap.



Burnside.

The Federal army crossed over on the 11th and 12th of December. It had previously bombarded Fredericksburg until it was a mass of ruins. The Union forces made an assault on Dec. 13, across the plain and up Maryes Heights in three massive columns, but subject to a terrible fire from tier above tier, rising to the crest of the hill. At the foot of this hill they were stopped by a stone wall, behind which the Confederate infantry rained upon them a deadly fire of musketry. Two thirds of Meagher's brigade fell charging up the heights. Hooker's division suffered fearfully. No soldiers could have fought with greater valor, but owing to bad generalship their valor was in vain. The Confederates gained a complete victory; and Burnside withdrew his army to the north side of the Rappahannock.

Battle of Fredericksburg.

CHAPTER XLIV.

THE CIVIL WAR — Continued.

"Hail Columbia! happy land!
Hail ye heroes! heaven-born band!
Who fought and died in freedom's cause."

. . . . .

"I want a hero: an uncommon want,
When every year and month sends forth a new one."

Events in the West, 1862.

The Civil War in the east ended as it began, with the two great armies almost in the same positions, on or near the Rappahannock River. On the whole, however, the Confederates had been the more successful; for the military operations of 1862 closed with the great victory of Fredericksburg. But the contest in the west showed very different results; for important victories by the Union commanders had a direct bearing on the preservation of the Republic.

In order to understand the operations of the different armies, it will be necessary to point out the several military departments into which the great Department of the Missouri was divided. It has already been stated that General H. W. Halleck was appointed to supersede General Frémont in this important position, with his headquarters at St. Louis. His department extended from the Cumberland Mountains westward to Iowa, and southward to Arkansas. Of course, it was necessary to divide such an extensive territory into smaller departments, as follows: one at Cairo under the command of General U. S. Grant, and another, called the Department of the Ohio, under General Don Carlos Buell, with headquarters at Louisville. Rosecrans commanded in West Virginia. When, as commander in chief, Lincoln issued an order that all these armies, including the Army of

Military departments.

the Potomac, should move simultaneously, on the 22d of February, against the common enemy, some were ready and some were not.

Grant, with his usual promptitude, was ready to move nearly a month before the time set apart. The Confederates held a strong position between Bowling Green on the east and Columbus on the west; and between these two towns rolled the waters of the Tennessee and the Cumberland, with Fort Henry on the former and Fort Donelson on the latter. Grant perceived that if these two forts were captured, the road to Nashville would be opened, and the Confederates would be forced to abandon Kentucky. He obtained from Halleck a reluctant consent to make the trial after Admiral Foote proved how it would prevent a Confederate movement against Buell. On the 30th of January, Grant moved forward with an army of seventeen thousand men and several gunboats, under Foote. General Tilghman, seeing that it was useless for his garrison of twenty-eight hundred men to contend against such a force, sent away all his soldiers, except about one hundred, to Fort Donelson, and only held the fort long enough to give them time to escape. Fort Henry, with its general, ninety men, and all its munitions of war, surrendered, Feb. 6, to General Grant.

Capture of Fort Henry.

Fort Donelson, about eight miles farther south, on the Cumberland River, was more formidable and more strongly garrisoned than Fort Henry. General Floyd, who had been Secretary of War under Buchanan, and Generals Pillow and Buckner were in command, with a force of twenty-one thousand men. Grant ordered Admiral Foote to bring the gunboats up the Cumberland by way of the Tennessee and the Ohio. The Union general then marched from Fort Henry with about fifteen thousand men; but he was quickly reënforced, until he had under his command twenty-seven thousand troops in excellent condition. The attack made by the gunboats on Feb. 14 failed, some of them being badly damaged, particularly the flagship on which Admiral Foote was wounded.

The weather became intensely cold, causing much suffering among the Union troops. On Feb. 15, while Grant was on a visit to Admiral Foote, the Confederates made a desperate attempt to escape. They made a fierce assault on McClernand, who commanded the Union right, and drove him back in confusion; but at this moment Thayer's brigade was thrown between the Confederates and the retreating division. The enemy then fell back within their intrenchments.

General Grant, on his return from the gunboat, perceiving how anxious the Confederates were to escape, ordered a general assault, in which General Smith penetrated the enemy's works. Floyd and Pillow, in the meantime, had fled in the night with a portion of their forces, and left Buckner to bear the odium of the surrender. On the morning of Feb. 16, the Confederate general wrote to know what terms he would receive from Grant should he capitulate. Grant's reply was: "*No terms except unconditional surrender.*" This was the first solid victory gained by the Union army since the commencement of the war — a victory which caused the destruction of one of the Confederate armies, amounting to twenty thousand men.

Capture of Fort Donelson.

Grant's splendid victory at Fort Donelson compelled the Confederates to evacuate the strong line from Columbus to Bowling Green, and also the important city of Nashville. From Columbus the enemy fell back to New Madrid; but finding that they could not hold this position, they destroyed their cannon and retreated to Island Number Ten. Here Pope was joined by Admiral Foote with seventeen gunboats. Both army and navy then commenced a fierce bombardment against this strongly fortified position, which lasted three weeks without accomplishing anything. Pope, perceiving the futility of this attack in front, cut a canal twelve miles long across the head of the peninsula, and attacked the enemy in the rear. The Confederate army of seven thousand men, with all their munitions of war, surrendered. The capture of Island Number Ten enabled the

Capture of Island Number Ten.

Union general to carry his troops within forty miles of the important city of Memphis.

Just about this time Grant was deprived of his command and he was virtually placed under arrest. Whether Halleck was jealous of General Grant's great victory at Fort Donelson, or whether he favored the victor of Island Number Ten, it is difficult to say. Perhaps he was actuated by both motives; for when he became commander in chief at Washington, he immediately placed General Pope in command of the army of Virginia, for the purpose of superseding General McClellan. On March 4, Halleck appointed General C. F. Smith to the command of the army of the Tennessee, thus superseding Grant, who immediately sent in his resignation, which was not accepted. Halleck had accused Grant of disobedience of orders. But the latter amply proved that communication between himself and his chief had been cut, and, therefore, that there was no disobedience, and no just cause for his removal. Thus, by the double dealing of Halleck, the country came near losing the services of the greatest general that the North possessed. On the 17th of March he was restored to his command.

Grant's danger.

When Grant reassumed command of the army, he found about half of it on the east bank of the Tennessee, at Savannah, one division at Crumps Landing, and the remainder at Pittsburg Landing. The enemy, under General Albert Sidney Johnston, was concentrated at Corinth, a most important position, as it commanded railways connecting the Mississippi with the Confederate States.

General Grant was waiting for the army of the Ohio, consisting of forty thousand veterans, under the command of General Buell, to reënforce his own army of thirty-eight thousand men, when the army of the Tennessee was suddenly and impetuously attacked at Shiloh, Tenn., by the entire Confederate force from Corinth. Grant was on the field at eight o'clock in the morning, and was everywhere in the thickest of the fight, encouraging his troops

Battle of Shiloh.

to hold their ground; but in spite of all his efforts many of the raw soldiers fled to the shelter of the bluff at Pittsburg Landing. Nearly two thousand of Prentiss's division were captured, and the Union army retreated about a mile.

General William T. Sherman, in command of the right wing, held his ground against all odds until night ended the contest. It was in this battle that Sherman proved himself a hero. Although twice wounded, he would not leave the field; and such was the desperate assault against his troops, and such were his heroic efforts to save the day, that he had several horses shot under him. Had he yielded to superior numbers, the army of the Tennessee would have been destroyed. General Buell brought his army into action on the morning of April 6; and the combined forces drove the enemy steadily back, more than recovering the ground they had lost the day before.

Sherman.

The Confederates rapidly retreated behind their intrenchments at Corinth. General Johnston was killed, and the command devolved on General Beauregard. This great battle may be called a Union victory, for the reason that the Confederates were put to flight. The losses were very heavy on both sides.

Shortly after the battle of Shiloh, when Halleck found that Grant had broken the backbone of the Confederate power in the west, he left his headquarters at St. Louis and placed himself in command of all the forces in front of Corinth. He

gathered all the troops within reach. He ordered Pope to join him with his army of twenty-five thousand men. Halleck had now an army of one hundred and twenty thousand soldiers, most of whom had seen service. Beauregard had less than half that number. The commanding general found fault with everything he saw. Grant was reduced to the most humiliating position — that of second in command, without duties or authority, and liable to be snubbed if he ventured to give an opinion. On account of the demoralized condition of the Confederates, it is quite certain that the Union army could have carried Corinth by assault.

Halleck at Corinth.

Buell.

Had Grant been in command, the greater part of Beauregard's army would have been captured or destroyed. But Halleck was one of those "scientific generals" who believed that battles could be won without bloodshed. Hence he commenced to move slowly against the enemy by throwing up intrenchments, and by conducting what was virtually a siege. In the meantime, Beauregard, perceiving that he could not hold Corinth against such superior numbers, quietly withdrew his cannon and stores of all kinds, and last of all his entire army, and left Halleck the empty town and fortifications, mounted by quaker guns. Such was the barren victory that caused Secretary of War Stanton to call Halleck to Washington as commander in chief.

Halleck commander in chief.

While these events were occurring in northern Mississippi, Admiral Farragut, with a fleet consisting of six sloops of war, sixteen gunboats, twenty-one mortar schooners and other vessels, started out to capture New Orleans, the wealthiest and most important city of the Confederacy. A few days afterwards General Benjamin F. Butler, with an army of fifteen thousand men, sailed for

Admiral Farragut.

the same city, for the purpose of coöperating with the naval force.

Thirty-five miles below New Orleans were Forts Jackson and St. Philip, which mounted together one hundred guns. In addition to these the enemy had thrown a chain boom, consisting of old hulks and cypress trees, across the river. Above the boom the Confederates had a naval force of fifteen vessels, one of which was an ironclad, and another a floating battery covered with railroad iron. The Union schooners, under the command of Commodore Porter, carried each one gun throwing a two hundred and fifteen pound shell. Farragut experienced great difficulty in getting his larger vessels over the bar at Southwest Pass. The schooners were towed to their places, and moored to the banks; and their masts were covered with trees, to prevent the enemy from recognizing them from the surrounding woods. The Unionists then commenced a heavy bombardment of the forts, which lasted for six days and nights, but without much effect.

Farragut.

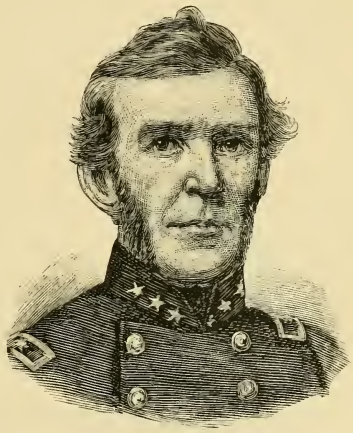
Bombardment of Forts Jackson and St. Philip.

A council of war was called; and it was determined to run past the forts in the night. During the night of the 20th of April, Lieutenant Caldwell cut loose one of the hulks of the boom. In the meantime, the Confederates sent down the current burning rafts and lighters covered with all kinds of inflammable material, with the intention of setting the Union

fleet on fire. These made the night almost as clear as the day; so that Farragut could expect little from the darkness.

On the night of the 23d of April the Union fleet, in three divisions, sailed through the opening, and immediately attacked the Confederate vessels, destroying every one of them before the action was finished. The loss on either side was very small. New Orleans was now at Farragut's mercy. The Confederate troops, under Lovell, abandoned the city, and the brave Farragut took possession on April 28, and turned over the municipal government to General Butler. The Federal fleet now commanded the Mississippi from its mouth to Vicksburg, which was fortified so strongly as to be deemed impregnable. However, on the 28th of June, Farragut ran past the Confederate batteries without serious injury to any of his vessels. Thus the Confederate supplies from Texas were completely cut off.

Capture of New Orleans.



Bragg.

The guerrilla chieftains Forrest and Morgan, in the rear of the Federal army at Corinth, were inflicting serious injury on the Unionists of Kentucky and Tennessee, and preparing the way for General Bragg, at the head of an army of forty-five thousand men, whose objective point seemed to be the wealthy city of Cincinnati. General Buell, at the head of twenty-five thousand men, marched from Corinth in a line almost parallel to that of Bragg, each striving to be the first at Louisville, on the south bank of the Ohio. Bragg captured Frankfort, the

Bragg's invasion of Kentucky.

State capital, from which he issued a pompous proclamation, calling on the people to join their brethren in the battle for "freedom." This invasion of Kentucky was simultaneous with Lee's invasion of Maryland, and both had a similar object in view.

In the meantime, Buell moved on rapidly to Louisville, and saved Cincinnati. Here he was heavily reënforced; and it was now Bragg's turn to retreat. He had, however, accomplished the main object of his invasion. He had captured immense stores of all kinds. It was said that his train was forty miles long. His retreat was leisurely conducted; and when the Federal army pressed him too closely, on the 8th of October, he turned round and fought Buell at Perryville. Neither general brought more than a third of his army into action. Although technically the Federals were victorious, for the reason that Bragg continued his retreat to Chattanooga, the battle was really a Confederate victory. The Union loss was nearly four thousand, while that of the Confederates was two thousand five hundred. The Federal government was so dissatisfied with General Buell's conduct, that he was removed, and General Rosecrans was appointed in his place.

Battle of Perryville.

Rosecrans.

When, after the fall of Corinth, Halleck was made commander in chief, with headquarters at Washington, Grant was left at the head of the armies in the west. Bragg conducted his retreat to the mountains of East Tennessee, where it would have been folly to pursue. General Rosecrans was ordered to join Grant's army at Corinth. Grant's forces were

stretched in a long line from this town to Iuka, commanding the Memphis and Charleston Railroad. Since the Confederate victories of the early spring and summer were completely nullified by the Union successes in the west, it became a matter of great importance to the enemy to capture Corinth and force the Federals back to the line of the Ohio. Hence Generals Price and Van Dorn were determined to break through the line of the Federal army. Price suddenly attacked Iuka, garrisoned by a Union force under Colonel Murphy, who basely surrendered without a blow. General Ord from the west and Rosecrans from the south were ordered by General Grant to march against and immediately attack the enemy.

Operations in the west.

As soon as Ord heard the firing from the east, he was directed to move against the Confederate flank; but a strong wind was blowing the sound of the artillery in another direction, and although he listened all day for the cannon, he heard nothing. Rosecrans fought the enemy alone from two o'clock until night closed the action. The Union troops were successful; and in the morning, when the combined forces of Ord and Rosecrans were ready to advance, they found Iuka abandoned. The enemy made several attempts to recover Nashville, which was held by General Negley. Andrew Johnson rendered most efficient service as military governor in holding Tennessee in the Union.

Battle of Iuka.

The Confederates perceived that in order to recover Tennessee and capture Kentucky, the Union forces must be driven out of Corinth. General Grant had long seen that if Vicksburg, the enemy's last stronghold on the Mississippi, could be taken, the backbone of the enemy in the west would be broken.

Leaving Rosecrans in command at Corinth, Grant moved the greater part of his army to Holly Springs, for the purpose of moving against Vicksburg. Rosecrans had only a force of twenty thousand men, while the combined armies of Van Dorn and Price amounted to more than double that number. But the Unionists had the advantage of strong fortifications. In the

beginning of the assault the Confederates carried several of the works; but when they reached the inner fortification, they received a withering fire and fell back in confusion. The Federals gained a complete victory, by which Tennessee was saved for the Union.

Battle of Corinth.

The defeats at Iuka and Corinth in the west, together with Lee's defeats at South Mountain and Antietam in the east, seemed to have greatly discouraged the Confederates. All their victories in Virginia in the spring and summer of 1862 were to a great extent nullified by the progress of the western armies. The Confederate government was, therefore, determined to capture Nashville, and thus force Grant to fall back to Kentucky. Hence Bragg was ordered to move rapidly from Chattanooga and surprise Nashville. But Rosecrans was there before him, and marched out of the city to give him battle. On Dec. 29 the Union general discovered the enemy in a strong position on the bluffs across the Stone River.

On the 30th, Rosecrans arranged his army in three divisions. On the morning of the 31st a most desperate attack was made against the right of the Union army, which fell back with severe loss. General Philip H. Sheridan, who commanded a brigade of this division, after a stubborn contest was driven back on the Union center, which held its ground with great tenacity. On New Year's Day both armies rested. Rosecrans spent the time in strengthening his position.

On the 2d of January, Bragg massed his forces under Breckinridge and Polk, and made a desperate attempt to drive the Union troops from their new position. But Rosecrans, with his batteries posted on a hill which commanded the whole field, swept the advancing Confederates with such a withering fire that they reeled, turned, and fled in utter disorder. On the 3d a storm raged so furiously that the battle was suspended; and Bragg, concluding that "prudence was the better part of valor," retreated toward the South. The loss was heavy on both sides.

Battle of Stone River.

CHAPTER XLV.

THE CIVIL WAR — Continued.

"He is the freeman whom the truth makes free
And all are slaves beside."

. . . . . .

"The mold of a man's fortune is in his own hands."

Events of 1863.

Moral events are always greater than physical events. In point of fact, the moral creates the physical. The extension of slavery was the real cause, and the election of Lincoln but the shallow excuse, for secession. Secession was commenced more for the purpose of intimidating the people of the North, who were peaceable and commercial, than for the purpose of waging a deadly war for four long years. The Southern planters did not appreciate the stubborn strength of the Northern "mudsills," as they were pleased to term the working people of the North.

Slavery the cause of secession.

When the Civil War broke out, President Lincoln and his able advisers were anxious to hold the border States, and were therefore disinclined to give offense to the slaveholders therein, who were still loyal to the Union. In the beginning of the contest, as previously stated, Butler invented a happy method of disposing of the captured slaves by treating them as "contraband of war."

The people of the North began to perceive that it was an error to permit the South to employ slave labor to supply their armies with food, and thus allow the able-bodied whites to fill their exhausted ranks. General David Hunter, May 9, 1862, declared the slaves free in the States of South Carolina, Georgia, and Florida. But as the time was not yet ripe, the President rescinded this declaration.

Lincoln was as strongly opposed to slavery as Frémont or Hunter, or any other general or statesman in the United States. But he wisely and patiently waited until the army and the people were educated up to the point where they could both perceive that slavery and rebellion must fall together. In the meantime, Congress had passed several bills touching the slavery question, which had been approved by the President. Slavery had been prohibited in the Territories, and abolished in the District of Columbia. The iniquitous Fugitive Slave Law had been repealed. Finally, September, 1862, Lincoln issued his celebrated proclamation abolishing slavery in all the States that should be in rebellion on the 1st of January, 1863. When the day appointed arrived, the President carried into effect the greatest act of his administration, perhaps the greatest act of the nineteenth century, the *emancipation of four millions of slaves.*

Emancipation proclamation.

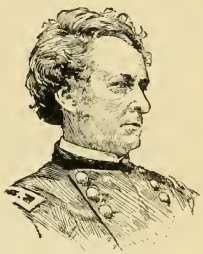
The Confederates, having suffered severely by regular warfare in the west, and having utterly failed to withdraw Kentucky from the Union, commenced a cruel and useless system of guerrilla fighting, under Morgan, Forrest, and many other officers, which was simply brigandage, destructive of property and life, and having no effect upon the cause for which the Secessionists were struggling. These "raids," as they were called, are not worthy a place in history.

Guerrilla warfare.

Leaving General Grant for the present to prepare his plans for the capture of Vicksburg, let us turn to the east, to see how it fared with the brave but unfortunate Army of the Potomac. Shortly after Burnside's defeat at Fredericksburg, General Joseph Hooker was appointed to the chief command of the army. This appointment was nearly as great a mistake as the appointment of Burnside; and it proved that a brave fighter may be but a poor general. When the spring of 1863 opened, Hooker found himself at the head of a magnificent army of one

Army of the Potomac.

hundred thousand infantry, thirteen thousand cavalry, and ten thousand artillery, with Howard commanding the right, Slocum the center, and Meade the left. The Confederate army under Lee scarcely amounted to half that number.



Hooker.

On the 27th of April the Federal general sent Stoneman, with a large force of cavalry, to destroy the railroads in the rear of the enemy's army, and thus cut off communication with Richmond. At the same time he ordered General Sedgwick to cross the Rappahannock with twenty-five thousand men, and carry the Heights of Fredericksburg by assault, while he, Hooker, would throw the main body of his army across the river, above the town, and might thus compel Lee to fall back toward Richmond, or else to attack the Union army in its chosen position.

Lee left a small force to guard the Heights of Fredericksburg, and suddenly concentrated fifty thousand men against Hooker's army. On May 2, 1863, Lee detached Stonewall Jackson, with half his force, to turn Howard's flank. This active Confederate general made a detour of fifteen miles, and, suddenly emerging from the woods under cover of which he had effected this dangerous movement, he attacked the Union right wing at Chancellorsville while the men were getting ready for dinner. Howard had not even sent out pickets, so sure was he that there could be no attack from that quarter. The greater part of his corps was driven from the field panic-stricken, and with severe loss. The enemy made several desperate attacks on the center, but were driven back each time by Berry's and Birney's divisions. The slaughter on both sides was frightful. Sickles sent to Hooker for reënforcements; but the latter had been stunned and made insensible by a cannon ball which had struck a post against which he was leaning.

Battle of Chancellorsville.

In the meantime, Sedgwick had carried the Heights of Fredericksburg, and then placed his army in Lee's rear. But the Confederate general instantly sent a larger force against him, and the contest was continued until night set in. The next morning, May 3, the Confederates drove Sedgwick across the river with the loss of over five thousand men. On the same evening Hooker recrossed the river, and took up his old position at Falmouth.

The Union loss in this desperate battle was seventeen thousand men, that of the Confederates considerably less. But they had lost one man, Stonewall Jackson, shot accidentally by his own soldiers, and according to his own orders to fire on any approaching enemy, whose death, Horace Greeley said, was worth to the Union army a reënforcement of forty thousand men. Lee and Jackson won this victory by superior generalship; Hooker was defeated for lack of it; for with a vastly superior army he was unable to bring more than a quarter of it into battle at any one point.

Jackson's death.

About a month after the defeat of Hooker at Chancellorsville, General Lee, at the head of a reorganized army of one hundred thousand men, resolved to make one more desperate effort "to conquer a peace" — a peace which would destroy the great Republic. His plan was evidently to capture Baltimore and perhaps Philadelphia, and thus cut off Washington from communication with the North. His army was divided into three great corps, always within supporting distance of each other, under his best generals, Hill, Longstreet, and Ewell. A part of the Confederate army moved northwestward along the northern bank of the Rappahannock.

Lee's plans.

On the 11th of June, General R. H. Milroy, commanding seven thousand five hundred men, was ordered to fall back from Winchester to Harpers Ferry; but failing to obey, he was overwhelmed and his force destroyed by Ewell. On June 15, General Ewell reached Chambersburg, Pennsylvania;

and shortly afterwards he was joined by the remainder of the army of invasion under Hill and Longstreet. Ewell's corps was then advanced to Kingston, within thirteen miles of Harrisburg. In the meantime, Hooker, while covering Washington, marched almost on parallel lines with the enemy, and occupied the town of Frederick. Several cavalry engagements had taken place along the line of march, but they were of little importance to either side.

Lee's second invasion.

Meade.

In front of the enemy General Hooker was superseded, on June 28, by General George S. Meade. A portion of Ewell's army reached York, upon whose inhabitants the Confederate general levied a large sum of money. Meade advanced his army toward South Mountain, threatening Lee's communications. The Confederate commander in chief ordered Hill and Longstreet to march to Gettysburg, and directed Ewell to join them at that place. General Meade, discovering the intentions of the enemy, ordered General Reynolds, with two corps, to occupy the range of hills near Gettysburg before the Confederates could reach them. This he did, most gallantly driving the enemy before him; but, unfortunately, at this critical moment Reynolds was mortally wounded.

Meade's army.

Doubleday succeeded him in command, and was supported by Howard. At one o'clock Ewell's army reached the field, and drove the Unionists through the streets of Gettysburg

until they reached Cemetery Hill, where they were rallied. Sickles arrived on the field, and took position on Howard's left. General Meade, who was ten miles distant, hearing of these events, sent Hancock forward to take command. The Confederates made several desperate attempts to carry Cemetery Hill, but were as often repulsed, with great loss. Hancock reported the condition of affairs to Meade, who immediately joined the main army, determined to give the enemy battle the next day.

Hancock.

On the morning of the 2d of July the Union line extended nearly five miles, from Cemetery Hill in the middle, along a row of heights, in the form of a horseshoe. Howard held the center, Slocum the right, and Hancock and Sickles the left. General Sedgwick, with the Sixth Corps, did not reach the field until 2 P.M. Ewell commanded the Confederate left, Hill the center, and Longstreet the right. Toward evening Lee ordered General Longstreet to attack the left, under Sickles, for the purpose of flanking Cemetery Hill. Sickles was hurled back with severe loss. A fierce struggle then ensued for the possession of Round Top, an eminence on the left. Sickles was struck on the leg by a cannon ball, and carried off the field; but Sykes and Hancock came to the rescue, and drove the enemy back, recovering all the ground which had been previously lost. Ewell, on the left, drove Slocum back, and gained some of his rifle pits.

The field at Gettysburg.

In an effort to retake them, on the morning of July 3, a desperate conflict was maintained for six hours. Finally, the Confederates were driven back with severe loss. Thus General

Lee had tried to break both wings, and failed; then he determined to attack the center. He brought one hundred and twenty-five guns in front of Hill and Longstreet, and concentrated their fire on Cemetery Hill. At two o'clock this terrible battery poured forth a terrific fire of shot and shell, which was replied to by one hundred Union guns. Under cover of this fire, at four o'clock Lee ordered a grand charge against Hancock's Second Corps, which occupied the hill. Here General Hancock was severely wounded, and Gibbon succeeded to the command.

The Confederates advanced three lines deep. The first line was simply destroyed as though the earth had opened and swallowed it; the second line marched straight through their killed and wounded, over the Union rifle pits, to the guns, whose gunners they bayoneted on the spot. The Union guns on the western slope of the hill swept the Confederates, until, broken and dismayed, they fell back, whole regiments surrendering. Lee made his last desperate charge; but his brave soldiers were hurled to death against the solid rock of Northern intrepidity. The Federal army gained the greatest pitched battle of the Civil War — the greatest ever fought on the American continent. Never again could the Confederates make an attempt to invade the North.

Decisive victory at Gettysburg.

If every little skirmish, raid, or battle were described, the military movements east and west would fill many volumes; and the reader's mind would be so confused by such a multiplicity of small events and useless dates that he could derive but little profit from the perusal. Therefore, we intend to relate only such battles as had a direct bearing on the result of the Civil War.

It may be here stated that one of the most fortunate events in favor of the Union cause was the calling of Halleck to Washington, because it left as commander of the western army General Grant, a man of great ability, and a strategist of the highest order, whose military genius was comprehensive,

and able to include a large extent of country. He clearly perceived that the capture of Vicksburg — the great Confederate stronghold on the Mississippi — would give the Unionists complete command of that river, from its source to its mouth, and cut off all supplies for the enemy from Arkansas, Louisiana, and Texas.

Designs on Vicksburg.

Vicksburg is peculiarly situated on a bend of the Mississippi. The river here takes a sudden turn toward the northeast for about fifteen miles, and then turns backward toward the southwest, thus forming a peninsula two miles wide. The town is near the bend, strongly fortified on the land side and on the river side by immense batteries. Its natural and artificial defenses made it the strongest fortification in the United States. All the Confederate forces at this time in the State of Mississippi were under the command of General Pemberton.

General Grant, in consultation with General Sherman, planned a campaign by which the latter was to organize an army of thirty thousand men, and, in conjunction with Admiral Porter, assail Vicksburg, while Grant held Pemberton outside the town. But the plans of the Union general were brought to naught by the treason or cowardice of Colonel Murphy, who basely surrendered Holly Springs to the Confederate general Van Dorn. Supplies of all kinds to the value of $2,000,000 fell into the hands of the enemy. This was the same Murphy who had disgracefully surrendered Iuka. The Confederate cavalry cut Grant's communication so effectually that for one week he was not heard of in the North.

Murphy's base surrender.

Sherman soon made the discovery that Vicksburg was impregnable by water; and learning that there was a garrison of five thousand men at Arkansas Post, he proceeded forthwith to capture it; and this he accomplished without much loss. Grant perceiving the impossibility of maintaining so long a line of communication, changed his plan so that he could receive supplies by the Mississippi River.

Capture of Arkansas Post.

To add to the many difficulties of the Union army, the winter of 1862 and 1863 was noted for heavy rains and continual high water on all the rivers and bayous; so that it was almost impossible to find dry land on which the troops could encamp. It was, therefore, useless to commence operations against Vicksburg until March; and in the mean time the Union commander must keep his soldiers busy during the winter months, to prevent sickness and discouragement among them. With this end in view Grant commenced digging a channel two miles wide across the isthmus.

Johnston.

The Confederate government, aroused to the danger, sent General Joseph E. Johnston to command all their armies in the southwest. Grant collected most of his forces at Millikens Bend, March 25, and, after having tried many ways to capture Vicksburg, finally determined, with the aid of the gunboats and transports under Admiral Porter, to run past the Confederate batteries, cross over to the east side of the Mississippi, and attack the stronghold on that side. By the aid of darkness and forage barges Porter was able to run his fleet, with slight loss, past seven miles of batteries. On April 30, General Grant effected a landing nearly opposite Bruinsburg, with an army of thirty-three thousand men, which was ultimately increased to seventy-one thousand. He then marched northeasterly, capturing Port Gibson and Grand Gulf, taking many prisoners, and suffering little loss. He next marched in the direction of the Big Black

Grant's victories.

River. At Raymond a battle was fought in which the Unionists were completely successful.

Grant's great aim was to keep Pemberton and Johnston apart, and beat them both in detail. In an attempt to unite the Confederate forces a battle took place at Champions Hill, May 16, in which Pemberton was completely routed and driven into Vicksburg, where Grant and Porter proposed to lock him up and ultimately starve him out.

Battle of Champions Hill.

Grant now resolved to attack Jackson, the capital of the State of Mississippi. To accomplish this purpose he cut loose from his base; and issued to each soldier two days' rations on which he must subsist five days. Johnston, after a slight contest, evacuated the town, losing fifteen hundred men and several guns. Sherman received orders to destroy Jackson as a railroad center.

On May 18 the regular siege of Vicksburg began. On the morning of the 19th the investment was complete. Sherman, commanding the right of the Union army, was north of Vicksburg; McPherson, commanding the center, was east; and McClernand, in command of the left wing, was south. Reënforcements poured in from the North so rapidly that Grant was able at the same time to face Johnston on the east, while he held Pemberton within his fortifications on the west. Grant made two unsuccessful assaults to carry the town; one on the 19th, and the other on the 22d. In the latter, some of the Union troops had actually planted their colors on the enemy's ramparts. These assaults convinced Grant that Vicksburg could only be taken by a regular siege. His line from Haines Bluff to Warrenton was fifteen miles long, while that of the Confederates was only seven.

Investment of Vicksburg.

For seven weeks the town was completely environed by the army on the land side and the navy on the river side. Finally, on July 3, Pemberton sent one of his chief generals with a flag of truce to learn what conditions the Union general would grant

in case of surrender. As at Fort Donelson, Grant demanded the surrender of the town and army. After some vain attempts on the part of Pemberton to obtain better terms, he yielded, and surrendered Vicksburg, its whole army of thirty-two thousand men, its batteries, amounting to one hundred and seventy-two cannons, and sixty thousand muskets, with munitions of war.

Surrender of Vicksburg.

Up to this time this was by far the greatest victory of the war. That fourth of July, 1863, was a red-letter day in the history of the United States; for on the wings of the telegraph were borne to all the world the glad tidings that slavery had been virtually destroyed by two grand victories — Gettysburg and Vicksburg. The Confederate struggle henceforth was utterly useless. The leaders might have then yielded, for a protraction of the war meant simply a further loss of life and destruction of property. The fall of Vicksburg caused the surrender of six thousand men at Port Hudson; and thus the great river was open to the ocean.

After the disastrous defeat of Lee at Gettysburg, the Confederates slowly retreated toward the Potomac; but they found the river so swollen that it was impossible to cross. At Williamsport Lee fortified his position, and remained four days awaiting an attack by the Union army. A council of war called by General Meade decided against an attack; and hence the enemy were permitted to escape to their fortified works on the Rappahannock. During the remainder of 1863 the two armies maneuvered a great deal without coming to a decisive action. There were, however, frequent skirmishes between the cavalry, which simply resulted in loss of life and destruction of property, and accomplished little or nothing for either side in the great contest.

Skirmishes in the east.

General Rosecrans, in command of the army of the Cumberland, had been repeatedly ordered to drive the Confederates under General Bragg out of Tennessee; but for some inscrutable reason he failed to obey. Had he followed up the

advantage gained at Stone River he would have prevented the sending of reënforcements to General Joseph E. Johnston, whose position in the State of Mississippi was a constant menace to Grant's army before Vicksburg.

It was on the 24th of June, only a few days before the capture of the great stronghold, that Rosecrans made a movement against Bragg whom he skillfully maneuvered into and out of Chattanooga. But the Union general unwisely scattered his forces, in the hope of capturing the Confederate army. In the meantime, Bragg had received reënforcements, and, turning suddenly round, he fiercely attacked the Federal army at a small stream named Chickamauga. On the 19th of September there was fierce fighting all day. Longstreet arrived with his corps during the night. General George H. Thomas, commanding the Union left, was fiercely and repeatedly assailed by General Polk; but his wing of the army was invincible. The Federal right and center had been driven back in confusion with severe loss.

Battle of Chickamauga.

But for Thomas the army of the Cumberland would have been destroyed. The broken and disordered troops rallied around the unconquered left wing, and assumed a strong position at Chattanooga. In killed, wounded, and captured, the Federal loss was sixteen thousand men. The Confederate loss was not given. This defeat greatly alarmed the government at Washington. Thomas was ordered to supersede Rosecrans, and Grant was placed in command of the three armies of the Cumberland, the Ohio, and the Tennessee, his military jurisdiction extending from the Mississippi to the Alleghanies.

There was great danger that the army of the Cumberland would be starved into surrender. The rains had been heavy, the roads were knee-deep with mud, and horses and mules had died by the hundreds for lack of forage. Rations reached the discomfited and discouraged army by circuitous routes. Such was the dreadful condition of things when Grant was ordered to take command and save the army. Jefferson Davis visited Bragg's army, and made the fatal mistake of dividing it, by

sending Longstreet's corps to capture Knoxville, then commanded by Burnside. Longstreet made several assaults; but each time he was driven back with severe loss.

Grant gradually and skillfully obtained supplies of all kinds for his half-starved soldiers. At the same time he increased his force to eighty thousand men; and with this fine veteran army he was determined to drive Bragg out of his strong position between Lookout Mountain and Missionary Ridge. On the 23d of November the movement began. On the morning of the 24th Hooker led the attack upon Lookout Mountain; and under cover of a dense fog completely surprised the enemy, and captured two thousand prisoners. The next morning Sherman received orders to capture Missionary Ridge. After several fierce assaults the Union general carried it by storm, and broke the enemy's line. The defeated Confederates fled to Dalton. This victory drove the enemy out of Tennessee.

Battle of Chattanooga.

While the great majority of the Northern Democrats were in favor of prosecuting the war for the preservation of the Union, there was a small noisy minority that tried by every means in their power to embarrass the government in its efforts to suppress the rebellion. This faction was known as "Copperheads." In the beginning of 1863 everything wore a gloomy aspect for the cause of the Union. The notorious Louis Napoleon, emperor of the French, volunteered his services as "mediator;" in other words, he tried to aid the cause of secession. The anti-war Democrats, the upholders of slavery, were exasperated at Lincoln's proclamation of emancipation. They declared the war for the Union a failure, and the suspension of the Habeas Corpus Act unnecessary and unconstitutional. The most outspoken and virulent of these politicians was C. L. Vallandigham, whom General Burnside arrested for resistance to the Federal government. The President modified his punishment by banishment beyond the Southern lines. Meetings were held in Ohio and elsewhere

Northern enemies of the Union.

in which the government was severely denounced; and to add to these difficulties, there was the pressure of an immense war debt constantly accumulating.

On the 13th of July a riot took place in New York which lasted four days. Whether this was a spontaneous rising of the poorer classes against the draft, because the wealthy could escape it by paying into the treasury the sum of three hundred dollars, or whether it was concocted and carried into execution by rebel emissaries, has never been clearly ascertained. It is more than probable that the persons who attacked and burned the offices of the provost marshals were honestly opposed to the draft; but after it began, the thieves and burglars who abound in all great cities emerged from their cellars and garrets, and commenced their work of pillage, destruction, and murder. They cut the telegraph wires, destroyed railroads, set fire to the colored orphan asylum and several private houses, killed negroes, wherever encountered, in the most barbarous way, hanging some of them to lamp posts. Before the riot was suppressed many lives were lost and two million dollars worth of property was destroyed. This riot was the most disgraceful event of the Civil War.

Draft riot in New York.

In 1863 Congress passed a bill authorizing the employment of negro soldiers. The Confederate government, in retaliation, declared all white officers of such troops outlaws, and, when captured, subject to instant death. In the exchange of prisoners the enemy refused to recognize negroes as prisoners of war. President Lincoln then declared that a Confederate soldier would be executed for every United States soldier, without regard to race or color, when put to death in violation of the rules of war. In December, 1863, over fifty thousand negro soldiers were enlisted, and in certain kinds of military service were found very useful.

Bills passed by Congress.

CHAPTER XLVI.

THE CIVIL WAR — Continued.

"In peace there 's nothing so becomes a man
As modest stillness and humility;
But when the blast of war blows in our ears,
Then imitate the action of the tiger:
Stiffen the sinews, summon up the blood."

Events of 1864.

While the great armies of the east and west were idly facing each other, waiting for the fair weather of spring to enable them to renew hostilities on a grand scale, a number of smaller armies, during the severe winter of 1863 and 1864, were fighting with varying success in Missouri, Arkansas, Mississippi, and Louisiana. General Banks, in an unsuccessful attempt to capture Shreveport, was defeated by General Kirby Smith, at Sabine Cross Roads, and in the battle the Federal army lost three thousand men and eighteen guns. Admiral Porter supported Banks with his gunboats; but, owing to the shallowness of the Red River, some of the vessels were run ashore, and burned, in order to prevent their falling into the hands of the enemy. By the aid of a dam constructed by Colonel Bailey most of the gunboats escaped. An expedition against Jacksonville, Fla., under the command of General Seymour and Admiral Dupont, proved

Banks's defeat at Sabine Cross Roads.

Banks.

a complete failure. Several attacks made by General Gillmore on Charleston proved equally unsuccessful. The guerrilla warfare in Missouri and Arkansas had little or no influence on the general result.

On the 2d of March, 1864, Congress revived the grade of lieutenant general, which had been held by Washington alone. On the 9th, Lincoln had the pleasure of handing Grant this new commission which made him actual commander of all the armies in the field. He fixed his headquarters with the Army of the Potomac, but did not disturb General Meade in its immediate command. This veteran army amounted to one hundred and forty thousand men, divided into three great corps, the Second under Hancock, the Fifth under Warren, and the Sixth under Sedgwick. In addition, Burnside commanded a reserve of twenty thousand troops composed partly of negroes. Grant's nominal forces in the field amounted to one million of men, scattered over five thousand miles of territory.

Grant's armies.

Sedgwick.

The navy, also subject to his orders, consisted of six hundred vessels of war, mounting four thousand guns, lying along the coast and rivers. Counting the armies in Virginia, West Virginia, and along the coast of the Carolinas, fit for duty, he commenced the campaign against Richmond with about three hundred thousand men. To oppose this force Lee had about half the number. But the Confederate general fought from behind intrenchments, and knew every rod of ground between the Rapidan and Richmond.

Grant's purpose was to order an advance of all the armies on the 1st of May, the objective points of the two great armies being Richmond and Atlanta. The simultaneous movement was ordered for the purpose of preventing the Confederates,

whose armies moved within shorter lines, from carrying out their old trick of reënforcing each other as occasion required. Grant's plan of campaign was vast and comprehensive. The Army of the Potomac was the center; Sherman's armies the right wing, and Butler's army at Fortress Monroe his left wing, with Burnside's Ninth Corps acting as a reserve. Grant's design was to crush the Confederate armies; that of Northern Virginia under Lee, and that in the west under Joseph E. Johnston. Could this be accomplished, there would be an end of the war.

Grant's plans.

The North had vast resources; those of the South had been exhausted. Lee's army of about sixty thousand men was stretched about twenty miles along the Rapidan, every rod of which was fortified. Grant crossed the river at Germania Ford, ten miles below Lee's right ; and the crossing was unopposed, either because Lee was afraid to stretch his line any farther, or because he wished the Federals to entangle themselves in the Wilderness. Grant moved his army on two roads running south. There were two roads running east and west, intersecting the others at right angles.

The Federal army was marching in two columns along these roads, when Lee determined to throw a superior force between them, and defeat each in detail. On May 5, in an attempt to accomplish this purpose, Lee suddenly attacked the Union army in the Wilderness, at the junction of the roads; and the battle was continued until four o'clock in the afternoon, without much advantage to either side, when both armies withdrew to intrench. During the night Burnside's corps arrived, and was thrown between Warren and Hancock. The next morning Sedgwick attacked on the right and Hancock on the left, both driving the Confederates before them. At this moment Longstreet arrived on the field, and threw the Union forces on the left into confusion; but while he was preparing to execute a flank movement he was severely wounded by one of his own men by mistake. After dark the enemy, under Gordon, suddenly struck

Battle of the Wilderness.

the Union right, routing two brigades, and capturing General Seymour and four thousand men. General Sedgwick, however, soon restored order. On May 7, both armies spent the day in skirmishes and reconnoissances.

On May 8, Lee retreated to Spottsylvania, where he was strongly intrenched. Here Warren assaulted Anderson's corps, and was repulsed with heavy loss. He rallied his troops, and made a second assault and with better success. Grant ordered Sedgwick to Warren's support, in order to crush Anderson before Lee could send forces to his support. Hancock and Burnside received similar instructions. On account of the difficulty of the road Sedgwick was slow in obeying the order. Hancock and Early met on the same road, and each held the other from the battlefield. On the 9th, Lee had his army intrenched in front of the town, in the form of a semicircle. Warren occupied the right, Sedgwick the center, and Burnside the left. While Sedgwick was placing a battery, he was killed by a Confeder- sharpshooter. For the next two days there was considerable fighting, but without result to either side. After a week of desperate fighting Grant wrote a report to the War Department, which contained the historic sentence: "*I propose to fight it out on this line if it takes all summer.*"

Battle of Spottsylvania.

On May 12, Hancock's corps charged the center of Lee's line, and carried the breastworks, capturing three thousand men; but Ewell fell back to a stronger position, and was reënforced by Hill and Anderson. The position was exceedingly important; for, if once carried, the Confederate line would be cut in two. The terrible contest lasted all day, and was carried far into the night. The Federal army lost ten thousand men ; the Confederates, much less.

On the morning of May 22, Lee discovered that the Federal army had disappeared from his front, and, foreseeing the route that Grant would take, moved his army with great celerity to the south bank of the North Anna, and, marching on a shorter line, reached the river first and threw his forces behind in-

trenchments already prepared for them. Grant ordered Hancock and Warren, who were four miles apart, to cross the river. Lee, as usual, did not oppose the crossing, preferring to permit the Union army to attack him behind his fortifications. The Federal commander, perceiving that Lee's purpose was to throw his whole army between the two corps, and defeat each before the other could come to its support, ordered the two generals to recross the river. Grant then continued his flank movement by the left to the Chickahominy.

Grant's flank movement.

While on the south bank of the North Anna, Lee received a reënforcement of fifteen thousand men. On the 1st of June, Grant ordered General W. F. Smith to transfer his Eighteenth Corps by water from Bermuda Hundred to the Army of the Potomac. At the same time he changed his base from the Rappahannock to the White House. He then determined to seize Cold Harbor, for the purpose of forcing the Chickahominy at that point. On May 31, General Sheridan seized it, and the next day the Union troops came up, and, on June 2, a sharp engagement took place in which the Federals were successful at the cost of two thousand men. At sunrise, June 3, Grant ordered an assault by the whole army; but it was repulsed with terrible slaughter. It lasted only twenty minutes; but in that short time ten thousand Union soldiers lay dead or wounded in front of the Confederate intrenchments. Just after dark the Confederates charged the Federals, and were in turn repulsed with heavy loss. Again Grant found himself compelled to flank Lee by the left, and on the 14th of June he crossed the James River, with the determination to lay regular siege to Richmond. Grant lost seventy thousand men in this campaign, and the Confederates a little more than half the number. The Federal army might have been transferred to its present position on the James without the loss of a man, and saved such a fearful destruction of human life; but General Grant knew that he could afford to lose two men to the enemy's one, and yet crush them in the

Battle of Cold Harbor.

end. Grant's purpose from the beginning was to destroy the Confederate armies, and thus end the war.

Sigel and Hunter.

General Sigel, with a force of ten thousand men, moved up the Shenandoah Valley in two columns to New Market, where, on May 15, he was defeated by the Confederates under General Breckinridge, who captured seven hundred prisoners, six guns, and part of his train. General Hunter, who succeeded Sigel, defeated the Confederates under General W. E. Jones and captured fifteen hundred men, together with three guns and a large number of small arms.

Butler's movements.

On May 4 General Butler, reënforced by the Eighteenth Corps under General W. F. Smith, and by the Tenth Corps under General Gillmore, assisted by Admiral Lee with transports and ironclads, moved up the James River to City Point and Bermuda Hundred, where he intrenched his army. On the 7th, he destroyed a portion of the Petersburg and Richmond Railroad; and on the 13th and 14th, he carried a portion of the enemy's line at Drurys Bluff. Beauregard, collecting all his forces in the Carolinas, moved rapidly against Butler, and forced him to fall back behind his intrenchments at the junction of the James and Appomattox Rivers. In the Confederate assault under the cover of a fog, the Unionists lost four thousand men. Beauregard then drew a line of fortifications across the neck of the peninsula which "bottled up" Butler's army.

Sheridan's exploits.

The most dashing, daring, and successful of all the minor operations of the campaign was that of General Philip Sheridan, who left the army in the Wilderness, May 9, reached the enemy's rear, destroyed ten miles of the Virginia Central Railroad and large quantities of supplies, liberated four hundred Union prisoners, fought a successful battle, in which Generals J. E. B. Stuart and Gordon were killed, and then returned to the Army of the Potomac, having gone completely around Richmond and the Confederate army.

CHAPTER XLVII.

THE CIVIL WAR — Continued.

"He's of stature somewhat low;
Your hero should be always tall, you know."
. . . . . .
"There is always safety in valor."

Sherman's March, 1864.

Leaving General U. S. Grant for the present on the southern bank of the James River, and omitting mention of many minor raids and combats, we shall turn our attention to the great Army of the West now under the command of General William Tecumseh Sherman. With his usual promptitude, Sherman was ready to march, May 4, against the Confederate army, commanded by General Joseph E. Johnston who had superseded Bragg.

The Union army amounted to about 100,000 men, with 554 pieces of artillery, divided as follows: the Army of the Cumberland, 60,773, under General Thomas; the Army of the Tennessee, 24,465, under General McPherson; and the Army of the Ohio, 13,559, under General Schofield. Johnston had an army of 41,000 men, strongly intrenched at Dallas, which was subsequently reënforced until it numbered 64,000. Sherman's reënforcements made his army about double that of Johnston. The Confederate army was also divided into three corps, under Hardee, Hood, and Polk.

Sherman's army.

On May 10, Sherman placed his right wing in the rear of Johnston, with Thomas and Schofield ready to attack in front. This movement forced the Confederates to fall back eighteen miles to Resaca, where they were strongly intrenched. On May 15, there were fighting and skirmishing all day. McPherson

had pushed his troops so far that he gained a hill overlooking the town, from which his field artillery could reach the railroad south of the town. The Confederates made several desperate attempts to drive him from this position, but were each time driven back with heavy loss. On the night of May 15, Johnston evacuated Resaca, burning his bridges behind him. He was pursued by the Union army to Cassville, where he made preparations to give battle; but two of his corps commanders being opposed to it, Johnston resumed his retreat across the Etowah River.

Evacuation of Resaca.

McPherson.

At Cassville, Sherman rested his army for a few days. The enemy took up a strong position at Allatoona Pass ; and Sherman, aware of the difficulty, crossed the Etowah and made a flank movement toward the right, reaching Dallas his objective point.

This town was important as the center of many roads ; and its possession by the Union army threatened Marietta and Atlanta. On the march the Federal army encountered a strong body of Confederates, and a severe battle was fought at New Hope. The next morning Sherman found the enemy strongly intrenched, and the battle was renewed; but without success. On May 28, a fierce contest took place between McPherson's corps at Dallas and a part of the Confederate army, in which the Union troops were victorious.

Battle of New Hope.

Sherman having accomplished his main purpose of driving Johnston out of Allatoona, suddenly withdrew his army from New Hope and reached the line of railroad running south to Atlanta.

Thus in one month Sherman had beaten back the Confederates, over a rough and difficult country, for a distance

of one hundred miles, and captured the strongly fortified positions of Dalton, Resaca, Cassville, Allatoona, and Dallas. The whole march had been almost one continued fight. At Allatoona Sherman was obliged to rest, rebuild railroads and bridges, maintain his line of communication, and receive supplies for another forward movement.

Sherman's victories.

Johnston took a strong position, which covered Pine, Lost, and Kenesaw Mountains. On the 11th of June, Sherman advanced against the enemy with the purpose of forcing his way through the mountains. Johnston, finding his line too extended, abandoned Pine Mountain on the 15th, and two days afterwards withdrew his forces from Lost Mountain. He was therefore enabled to contract his position on Kenesaw Mountain.

Constant cannonading and skirmishing took place between the two armies. In one of these Hood made a sudden assault on Hooker; but the Confederates were repulsed with a loss of eight hundred men. On July 27th, Sherman assaulted the Confederate position in turn, and was beaten back with the loss of three thousand men. Sherman then sent McPherson far in the rear of Kenesaw Mountain. This movement compelled Johnston to fall back to the line of the Chattahoochee. But Sherman found means to cross the river, and Johnston, in order to avoid a battle, fell back to Atlanta.

The Union commander then sent General Rousseau with a force of cavalry around Atlanta, for the purpose of destroying the railroads and cutting off the enemy's supplies. The skillful tactics and military ability thus far manifested by the Confederate commander were evidently not appreciated by the great strategist who presided over the Confederate government at Richmond; and hence General Johnston was superseded by a mere fighter, General Hood, who blindly assumed, by orders, the impetuous "offensive-defensive," instead of the "defensive-offensive" of his predecessor. In pursuance of the new plan, Hood sud-

Johnston superseded by Hood.

denly attacked the Union army about five miles from Atlanta, and was repulsed, with the loss of five thousand men. He then massed his whole army against the army of the Tennessee, and a desperate battle was fought, in which the Confederates were at first successful; but they were subsequently driven back with the frightful loss of twelve thousand men. In this action the brave and skillful McPherson was killed.

McPherson killed.

Again, on July 28, Hood hurled his whole force against Howard, who had succeeded to the command of the army of the Tennessee. Six times the enemy charged, and six times they were repulsed with the loss of six thousand men. Thus by the "offensive-defensive," Hood had sacrificed twenty-three thousand men of the small army which Johnston had conducted in comparative safety from Dalton to Atlanta.

Hood sent Wheeler to destroy the railroad on which Sherman relied for supplies; and Sherman, in turn, sent Kilpatrick to break up the railroads in Hood's rear. Sherman, in the meantime, closely invested Atlanta on the north and east; so that Hood must either abandon the town or drive off the Union army by a general assault.

Again Hood ordered an attack by S. D. Lee and Hardee; and again he was repulsed, with the loss of five thousand more men, making twenty-eight thousand lost since the assumption of the "offensive-defensive." During the night of the 31st of August, Hood abandoned Atlanta, blowing up magazines and stores, and destroying seven locomotives and eighty-one cars, and a large quantity of cotton.

Hood abandons Atlanta.

Johnston's removal by Jefferson Davis was equivalent to a reënforcement of an army of forty thousand men to the cause of the Union. Next to the surrender of Vicksburg and the battle of Gettysburg, the capture of Atlanta was, thus far in the Civil War, the most important military event; for the Confederates lost a great railway center where most of their munitions of war were manufactured — the principal city of their wealthiest State.

As the bee flies, the distance from Chattanooga to Atlanta is a hundred miles, and it took Sherman a hundred days to drive Johnston before him, and to capture the city. If, however, the windings and turnings and flankings are taken into account, it is probable that Sherman's army marched five hundred miles, feeling their way through a rough, wooded country, with a wily, vigilant general in front, ready to take advantage of any mistake in the game of war.

This magnificent victory came just in time to save Lincoln in the coming presidential election; for the Democratic party had assumed that the war for the preservation of the Union was a failure. The fall of Atlanta was all the more welcome because the great Army of the Potomac had accomplished thus far very little, except to prevent reënforcements from being sent from Virginia to the aid of Johnston or Hood.

Instead of pursuing Hood, Sherman rested his armies in and about the city. The Confederate general then entered Tennessee, with the hope that the Federal army would pursue him, and thus evacuate Georgia. But Sherman did not fall into this shallow trap. On the contrary, he ordered all citizens to leave the city, giving them their choice to go North or South. He then destroyed everything in Atlanta that could be of the least use to the Confederates. He also destroyed all the railroads, thus cutting himself off from communication with his base, and with the government at Washington. He sent Thomas with a fine army to take care of Hood in Tennessee, and then collecting the various divisions of his forces, he resolved to cut his way to the Atlantic Ocean.

Evacuation of Atlanta.

From Atlanta to Savannah is, in a straight line, about three hundred miles. When Sherman, with dauntless courage, began his historical march, he had four army corps — the Fifteenth and Seventeenth under Howard, and the Fourteenth and Twentieth under Slocum. On Nov. 11, these corps marched out of Atlanta in four columns, living on the country, destroying railroads and

Sherman's march to the sea.

everything else of value to the enemy's armies. On the 21st they reached Milledgeville, the capital of the State, where the troops rested for a few days.

The Confederate officials made desperate attempts to collect a force to destroy Sherman; but the most they could do was to raise a few cavalry and some regiments of militia, which simply melted away before Sherman's veterans. In one month from the time he started, Sherman reached his objective point, — Savannah. After some little resistance Hardee, the Confederate commander, escaped to Charleston with his little army of fifteen thousand men; and on Nov. 22 Sherman marched in triumph into the city, where he found one hundred and fifty cannon, a great quantity of small arms, and thirty-eight thousand bales of cotton.

Occupation of Savannah.

Other Engagements, 1864.

When Hood failed to entice Sherman to pursue him, he crossed the Tennessee, Nov. 11, and threatened the Union forces under Schofield and Granger; but the former fell back to Columbia and the latter to Stevenson. Hood pressed Schofield at Duck River; but the Union general retreated rapidly to Franklin, eighteen miles from Nashville, fighting all the way, and both armies were racing to see which could reach it first. Schofield, although impeded by a large train, won the race. At Franklin, Hood hurled his whole force against the Union center and carried its first lines at a fearful sacrifice of life; but toward sunset the Union army drove back the Confederates and recovered all the ground that had been lost earlier in

Schofield.

the day. Both sides fought, hand to hand, with desperate valor, charging with the bayonet and using their muskets as clubs. Hood lost six thousand men, Schofield less than half that number. During the night the latter fell back to Nashville.

Battle of Franklin.

Meanwhile, General Thomas was slowly gathering in his reënforcements, and awaiting the arrival of cavalry, before he would commence a decisive movement. On the 16th of December, the Federal left wing attacked and drove back the Confederate right wing in confusion on their center; and at the opportune moment Wilson's cavalry attacked them in the rear. Hood managed to reënforce his right by transferring troops from his left; and by this means he was enabled to hold his position all day. During the night, however, he fell back two miles to a new position. The next day the Federal troops in assaulting the enemy's center were driven back with great slaughter. In the second charge the Federals carried all before them, capturing many guns and prisoners. The Confederates fled in confusion. The pursuit was kept up for several days, and Hood's army was virtually destroyed. He was soon afterwards relieved of his command at his own request.

Thomas's victory at Nashville.

Toward the close of 1864, the Confederate resources were nearly exhausted; and had it not been for the running of the blockade, by which much-needed supplies were obtained by the Confederates, the war would have been ended much sooner. It was very difficult, however, to maintain a perfect blockade over twenty-five hundred miles of seacoast. One of the principal ports from which cotton was sent out in exchange for material of war and necessaries of life was Mobile. Admiral Farragut, with a fine fleet of ironclads and wooden vessels, assisted by General Granger with a force of five thousand men, Aug. 5, 1864, moved into Mobile Bay, which was defended by three strong forts, and by torpedoes sunk in the channel. The Confederates had a considerable naval force, the principal vessel being the powerful ram *Tennessee*. The Union land

and naval forces acting in conjunction, the forts fell in rapid succession; and the enemy's vessels were beaten one by one.

Farragut's capture of Mobile.

Farragut lashed himself in the rigging of his flagship, the *Hartford*, from which dangerous position he overlooked the whole scene of action. A most desperate encounter took place with the powerful ram *Tennessee*, which boldly attacked the whole Union fleet; but at last she was compelled to show the white flag. Thus Farragut by his skill and courage gained the most famous naval victory of the war.

The fertile valley of the Shenandoah had been from the beginning of the war a great granary for the Confederate army of Northern Virginia. The Union generals who had commanded here were usually defeated, and they allowed the enemy to slip in and out of Richmond, as if out of a back door into a garden, for a fresh supply of provisions. This General Grant was resolved to put an end to; and to accomplish this purpose a new military department was created, Aug. 7, called the Middle Department, and General Philip H. Sheridan was assigned to the command.

On Sept. 19, Sheridan fought the Confederates under General Early, and gained a victory in which he captured three thousand prisoners and five pieces of artillery.

Sheridan's victories.

He pursued the enemy to Fishers Hill, where he again defeated them, taking one thousand prisoners and sixteen guns. Sheridan pursued Early with relentless activity, destroying everything in his march, and leaving not as much food behind him as would feed a crow. Finally, Early reached a place of safety at Browns Gap in the Blue Ridge, where it would have been folly to pursue farther.

While the Union army was returning down the valley, it was attacked, Oct. 9, by the Confederate general Rosser, who was badly beaten, losing three hundred prisoners and sixteen guns. While Sheridan was on a visit to Washington, Early, being heavily reënforced, stole slowly and secretly on the flank of the Union army at

Panic at Cedar Creek.

Cedar Creek, surprised it, and before a line of battle could be formed drove it panic-stricken for half a mile to the ground occupied by the Nineteenth Corps under Emory. The panic reached this corps, too, and both fled to the Sixth Corps, under Wright, who withstood the assaults of the Confederates, although attacked at the same time in front and on the left flank.

In the meantime, General Sheridan had reached Winchester on his return from Washington. He heard the roar of artillery, and met some of the affrighted fugitives. It was here he made his celebrated ride to the front, guided by the noise of battle, and reached the Sixth Corps at ten o'clock in the morning. He stopped the retreat, inspired his troops with confidence, and formed a new line of battle. He then made a general assault on the enemy's center, which broke and fled in utter confusion. Sheridan, by his timely arrival, turned defeat into victory, and ended once for all the Confederate raids up the valley of the Shenandoah.

Sheridan's timely aid.

In the general election of 1864, the Democratic candidates for President and Vice President were George B. McClellan and George H. Pendleton. The Republicans nominated Abraham Lincoln and Andrew Johnson. The difference between the two platforms was extreme and radical. The Democrats advocated the reëstablishment of slavery; the Republicans, the restoration of the Union without slavery. Doubtless Sherman's, Sheridan's, and Farragut's victories greatly aided the Republican party. Lincoln and Johnson were elected by an overwhelming majority, receiving two hundred and twelve votes out of a total of three hundred and thirty-three cast.

Lincoln's reëlection.

CHAPTER XLVIII.

THE CIVIL WAR — Continued.

"Money is the sinews of war."

Chase and Seward.

A great war requires the expenditure of enormous sums of money. When Mr. Chase became Secretary of the Treasury the credit of the Federal government was at a very low ebb; and in December, 1861, the banks in the loyal States, as well as the Treasury, were forced to suspend specie payments. Congress then passed a law making Treasury notes legal tender; and, as a matter of course, the currency became greatly depreciated.

Chase.

The rise and fall of the price of gold became a barometer by which the success or failure of the armies could be measured. After Grant's inability to destroy Lee's army in the battles of the Wilderness, and before the great victories of Sherman, Sheridan, and Farragut, gold reached, July 9, 1864, its maximum price, $2.90; in other words, a dollar in specie was worth $2.90 in Treasury notes, or "greenbacks" as the people termed them. In accordance with the plans of Mr. Chase, Congress passed various acts to raise large sums of money. The State banks were forced to become National banks, so that they might absorb large amounts of government securities.

Depreciation of paper money.

In 1865, the government debt amounted to $2,423,437,001, which, added to the debts of the loyal States, raised the indebtedness of the North to about $4,000,000,000, the most of which was raised by the loyal people themselves. But even this debt, enormous as it was, was little in comparison with the destruction of property caused by the raids, skirmishes, marches, and battles. In the Confederate States the paper money was practically worthless. Mr. Chase deserves great credit for his splendid management of the Treasury, and Mr. Seward, Secretary of State, for his able conduct of foreign affairs, which prevented England and France from acknowledging the independence of the South.

When Congress met, Dec. 6, 1864, it passed the Thirteenth Amendment to the Constitution, which abolished and forever prohibited slavery in the United States. This amendment was made constitutional by receiving a two-thirds vote of both houses, and by being ratified by a vote of three fourths of the States.

Abolition of slavery.

Grant and Sherman's Operations, 1864–1865.

After reaching the James River, Grant made several unsuccessful attempts to capture Petersburg, in which he lost a great number of men. The most famous of these undertakings was the mine which Burnside had bored under a fort in his front. When it was exploded, July 30, 1864, its garrison of three hundred men was destroyed, leaving a crater twenty feet deep and one hundred feet long. Instantly one hundred and ten cannon and fifty mortars commenced playing on the enemy; but owing to bad generalship on the part of the corps commander and the general of division, the Union army lost four thousand men, and the "explosion," to use Grant's words, "proved a stupendous failure." The remainder of the winter Grant devoted to destroying railroads, cutting off Lee's supplies, and preventing the Confederate army from escaping and joining the force under General Joseph E. Johnston, now in command in North Carolina. Grant meant to capture

Army of the Potomac.

the army of Northern Virginia, just as he had captured an army at Fort Donelson and another at Vicksburg, and end the Civil War by one great and decisive stroke.

On account of the incessant rains, Sherman was unable to move his army from Savannah until Feb. 1, 1865. He started a forward movement with four corps, marching, as nearly as possible, in four parallel columns, his objective point being Columbia, the capital of South Carolina, the proud old State which was the most bitter and determined in forcing her sister States into civil war. General Slocum, commanding the left wing, was ordered to threaten Augusta. By this strategy the Confederate forces were held in this place and in Charleston. Sherman then captured, almost without a blow, the South Carolina Railroad, tore up the rails, burned the ties, and twisted the bars. On Feb. 17, the Union army entered Columbia in triumph. The only opposition it received was from a cavalry force under General Wade Hampton who fled the town, but not before he had set fire to the cotton and other material, to prevent their falling into Sherman's hands. Sherman was falsely accused of burning the city. On the 19th. he moved out of Columbia, still marching northward, and left the enemy in doubt concerning his objective point. The roads were exceedingly bad, and the rivers very much swollen.

Sherman's operations in the Carolinas.

The fall of Columbia compelled Hardee to abandon Charleston to its fate. Here, as at Columbia, the Confederate general set fire to everything of value and marched out to form a junction with Beauregard and Cheatham, who had gathered together the remains of Hood's broken army and brought them into North Carolina. Sherman pushed on toward Charlotte, to which place Beauregard had fallen back. Leaving the Confederates at this place, the Union general suddenly turned eastward, and reached Fayetteville on March 12.

All the Confederate forces, amounting to forty thousand veteran soldiers, were united under the command of General Joseph E. Johnston. Sherman now threatened Raleigh; but

his intention was to seize Goldsboro. Near Bentonville, Slocum's left wing found itself suddenly confronted by the whole Confederate army. Sherman ordered Slocum to hold his position, and sent reënforcements to his aid from the right wing. Johnston, in desperation, and with the hope of destroying Slocum, made six fierce assaults, but was beaten back each time with heavy loss. During the night the Confederates retreated to Smithfield, and the Federal army took Goldsboro. In the three months' march from Savannah to Goldsboro, Sherman had covered eight hundred miles, crossed many rivers, and deceived and outgeneraled the enemy with unsurpassed ability and daring. Here he turned over the command to General Schofield, and hastened to City Point, to consult Grant and Lincoln.

Capture of Goldsboro.

The Federal armies and navies had seized one port after another, till the only one of any importance in the possession of the Confederates was Wilmington, N.C., which was defended by Fort Fisher, a place of considerable strength on a peninsula between the ocean and Cape Fear River. General Butler was directed to send an officer of ability, who, in conjunction with Admiral Porter, would assault and capture the fort. Instead of sending General Weitzel, as Grant intended, Butler himself headed the expedition, which under his command proved a complete failure. Grant was resolved that Wilmington must fall; he therefore selected General A. H. Terry to command another expedition in conjunction with the navy under Porter. The admiral maintained a terrible fire for three days from four hundred guns; and when he had done considerable damage to the enemy's works, at the proper signal a force of marines and soldiers made a general assault, and captured the fort, with two thousand prisoners, one hundred and sixty-nine guns, and a large quantity of military suppiles.

Capture of Fort Fisher.

In the midst of the Civil War the territory of Nevada applied for admission to the Union, and in October, 1864 she was admitted as a State.

Nevada admitted.

Fall of Richmond and End of the War.

After the Confederate defeats at Vicksburg and Gettysburg, the complete restoration of the Union without slavery was only a question of time. The government at Richmond was certainly aware of the desperate state of its affairs when, in the winter of 1864, it sent Alexander H. Stephens, R. M. T. Hunter, and Judge Campbell to negotiate a peace. Of course there could be no peace now on any terms except the prohibition of slavery; and to this the Confederates would not consent. Sherman's marches and victories had proved that the Confederacy was nothing but a shell supported by brave soldiers and able generals, but lacking all those appliances which make war successful.

Negotiations for peace.

Stephens.

Grant's plan was to destroy armies; and, in spite of politics and political generals of little ability, he managed, with the aid of professional soldiers like Sherman, Sheridan, and Thomas, to accomplish his purpose. Two powerful armies were now in Lee's rear, and but one road open for retreat. Grant was resolved to prevent the army of Northern Virginia from escaping by the Danville road, and forming a junction with Johnston's army of forty thousand in North Carolina. Both armies might then fall upon Sherman and defeat him. Such a disaster might prolong the war another year. Grant's main purpose was to capture Lee's army or starve it into surrender.

The Union commander issued an order for a general movement on the 29th of March. On the morning of the 25th, the Confederate general Gordon assaulted the Ninth Corps on the Union right, and at first carried three batteries; but these were subsequently retaken by the Unionists. Grant, in his interview with Sherman, advised him to make a feint against Raleigh

and then march rapidly to the Roanoke. In a similar interview with Sheridan, he directed him to capture Five Forks; or, in case of necessity, to cut loose from his base, live on the country and proceed to cut the Richmond and Danville road. He could then place his army in the rear of Johnston, and by coöperation with Sherman destroy the enemy's army in North Carolina.

On the 29th, Sheridan reached Dinwiddie Court House, and the next day proceeded to Five Forks. Reënforced by the Second Corps, he was directed to turn the enemy's right; but Warren, the corps commander, failed to bring his whole force into action, and he was therefore driven back in detail; and Sheridan was forced to fall back in the direction of Dinwiddie Court House. On account of his slow movements, Warren, by Sheridan's order, was superseded by Griffin. Here Sheridan manifested the genius of a great commander by deploying his cavalry on foot, and thus compelling the enemy to scatter themselves over a broken and wooded country.

Sheridan's genius.

On April 1, Sheridan, being heavily reënforced, drove the Confederates back on Five Forks, where he assailed their position and captured their artillery and five thousand prisoners. Grant continued to reënforce Sheridan, and ordered him to keep up a bombardment all night. The next morning, April 2, the commander in chief ordered a general assault. Wright carried all before him and took several thousand prisoners. He then joined Ord and both closed in on Petersburg. At eleven A.M., while Jefferson Davis was at church, he received a telegram from Lee, stating that his line was broken in two places. During the night the Confederates abandoned both Richmond and Petersburg and fled toward Danville.

Richmond and Petersburg abandoned.

Sheridan, on the morning of the 3d, commenced the pursuit. When Lee reached the north bank of the Appomattox, he had only twenty thousand men remaining of the great army of Northern Virginia. Faster and faster Sheridan pursued with

his cavalry, followed by the Sixth, Second, and Fifth Corps, and forced the Confederate commander to abandon a portion of his train. During the afternoon of the 6th, the Union general attacked the enemy at Sailors Creek, and captured sixteen guns and four hundred wagons. The Confederates were held in check until the arrival of the Sixth Corps, when a general assault was made, in which seven thousand prisoners were taken, among whom were several officers of high rank, including Lieutenant General Ewell.

Lee tried to continue his movement westward; but his case was hopeless. In order to prevent further effusion of blood, Grant, on the 8th, sent to the Confederate chief a note asking him to surrender. Late in the evening Sheridan arrived at Appomattox station, where he intercepted Lee in his attempt to escape. At this point the Confederates made a last desperate charge to break through the Union lines; but utterly failing to accomplish this purpose, Lee sent in a flag of truce, pending negotiations for a surrender. To Grant's note Lee responded, requesting an interview. The two great chiefs met at the house of a Mr. McLean, at Appomattox Court House, and agreed on the terms of surrender. The terms proposed by General Grant, and accepted by General Lee, were very generous, and might be summed up in the one sentence: Give your parole to fight no more against the Union; officers can retain their side arms and horses, and common soldiers such horses as they own. Lee was very much touched by Grant's magnanimity.

Lee's surrender.

With the surrender of Lee's army the Civil War was virtually ended; and in the reconstruction of the Confederate States the best and kindest friend the Southern people had throughout the entire North was the man who had "*charity for all, with malice toward none*" — the great and good Abraham Lincoln. The President, accompanied by his wife and two others, on the evening of April 14, occupied a box at Ford's theater in Washington. General Grant and his wife had been invited to join the party; but fortunately for them they were

on a visit to their children, then in school in Burlington, N.J. Toward the close of the play an actor named John Wilkes Booth stole into the vestibule of the President's box, and shot him through the brain; so that, without ever recovering consciousness, he died the next morning at about half-past seven. The cowardly assassin jumped from the box to the stage, and exclaimed, "*Sic semper tyrannus.*" But as he jumped his spur caught in the folds of a flag, causing him to fall heavily and wound one of his ankles. It was this injury which led to his capture in a Maryland barn; but he died in a few hours from his wounds.

Assassination of Lincoln.

On the same night an attempt was made to assassinate William H. Seward, Secretary of State. During the trial of the assassins the authorities unfolded a plot to murder the principal officers of the government. Several of the conspirators were imprisoned for life, and some were hanged.

To the credit of the Confederate generals be it said they knew when they were beaten and did what they could to prevent a guerrilla warfare. They had the good sense to accept the generous terms of Grant; and Sherman proposed terms to Johnston even more magnanimous; but these the Federal government could not approve, because the military conditions trenched on the civil authorities. In the discussions which followed, Stanton and Halleck treated the great commander who had marched and fought over three great States, capturing many cities and destroying several armies, with a meanness and a malignity unparalleled in the history of the United States. Sherman then offered Johnston the same terms which had been granted General Lee, and they were accepted. Generals Kirby Smith, Dick Taylor, and others, acceded to the same terms; and so ended the most gigantic civil war of modern times. On the 23d and 24th of May, there was a grand review in the city of Washington of two hundred thousand veterans, consisting of the two great armies — that of the Potomac and that of the Mississippi.

Surrender of Johnston and Kirby Smith.

On the night of the day that Lee informed Davis that his lines were broken in two places, the latter fled to Danville, accompanied by the members of his cabinet. From Danville he fled to Abbeville, S.C., and thence to Irwinville, Ga. Here, in addition to the members of his family, his only companion of note was his Postmaster-general, Reagan. All sorts of absurd rumors were set afloat; but the most preposterous was that he had carried off with him many millions of dollars in specie. General Wilson, in command of the Department of Georgia, sent cavalry officers in all directions to hunt down the fugitive President. Colonels Pritchard and Harden, May 11, surprised Davis's camp, and took him prisoner. He was subsequently sent to Fortress Monroe, where he was closely confined for two years, until released on bail.

Capture of Jefferson Davis.

Besides the vast treasure in money and the destruction of property of untold value, the Civil War cost the North three hundred thousand lives, either by battle, or by wounds and diseases; and had it not been for the Christian and Sanitary Commissions which attended so zealously to the sick and wounded, the number of deaths would have been greatly increased. In addition to this great loss of life, many soldiers were disabled, and others had contracted diseases which carried them off in a few years. Although the Confederates fought on their own soil, and during the last year mainly behind fortifications, it is quite probable that their losses were nearly as great. While the people of the North enjoyed the comforts of life, and trade, commerce, and manufactures were carried on as usual, the people of the South were shut in from the rest of the world by the blockade, and suffered great deprivations and hardships, which proved their sincerity and faith in their cause. Courage and magnanimity were amply displayed on both sides; and, with one or two exceptions, the great Civil War was conducted without the horrid crimes which usually accompany such a contest.

Cost of the war.

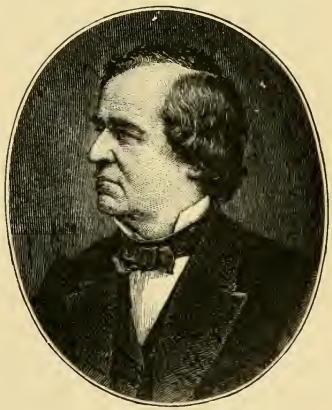
CHAPTER XLIX.

ADMINISTRATIONS SINCE THE WAR.

"Buried was the bloody hatchet;
Buried was the dreadful war-club;
Buried were all warlike weapons;
And the war-cry was forgotten;
There was peace among the nations."

Johnson's Administration (1865–1869).

Andrew Johnson, the Vice President, was privately sworn into office as President, April 15, and immediately began to display those peculiarities of temperament for which he was remarkable. Like Lincoln, he had risen from the humblest walks of life by dint of courage, ability, and perseverance; but there the likeness ended. While Lincoln was meek and lowly of spirit, patient, generous and ever ready to forgive, Johnson possessed all the vanity of the self-made man, was impulsive and impatient, unforgiving and vindictive. Above all, he was exceedingly stubborn. He began his administration with undue severity, constantly repeating his favorite saying, "I will make rebellion odious."



Johnson.

From being the most vindictive enemy of the conquered South, he suddenly turned round to be its best friend and stubborn champion. He assumed the theory that the seceded States had never been out of the Union, and that he, as chief

magistrate, possessed the power to reconstruct them. Accordingly, he recognized the State governments of some of the States which had been organized during the Civil War. He appointed provisional governors in others, and directed the formation of conventions to form new State governments. He also issued a proclamation of pardon to all but a few leaders, provided the persons lately engaged in rebellion would take an oath to support and defend the Constitution, accept the Thirteenth Amendment, and bind themselves never to demand the payment of the Confederate war debt.

Johnson's attitude toward the South.

When Congress assembled, it took strong ground against the reconstruction methods of the President; declared that he had usurped the powers which legally belonged to the national legislature, and immediately proceeded to pass several bills over the President's veto, the most important of which were The Freedman's Bureau, the Civil Rights, and the Tenure of Office Bills. Then began a bitter and unrelenting contest between the President and Congress. The former believed that the South would do justice to the freedmen; and the latter, still distrusting the recent slaveholders, was resolved to take the matter of reconstruction into its own hands. Johnson before the war had been a Southern Democrat and during the war a pronounced Unionist. Doubtless he was honest in his opinions to which he clung with stubborn tenacity.

Finally, he removed Edwin M. Stanton from the position of Secretary of War, in spite of the Tenure of Office Bill. The House of Representatives then passed a bill of impeachment; and after a trial of two months by the Senate he was acquitted for lack of the necessary two-thirds vote. Seven Republican senators refused to vote with their party; and thus the President was saved from the terrible disgrace of removal from his great office, but only by one vote.

Johnson impeached.

Congress placed the South under martial law, and for this purpose divided the country into military districts. Two

amendments to the Constitution were passed ; — the Fourteenth, making the freedmen citizens, and the Fifteenth, giving them the right to vote. No State could be admitted into the Union unless it conformed to these conditions. Six of the States recently in secession accepted the amendments, and were admitted; but some of the others, in which the freedmen outnumbered the whites, refused; and hence, under military rule, State governments were established in which the recently manumitted slaves became the legislators. There followed a rush of adventurers to the South, greedy of gain, and ambitious for high office, who, gaining control over the ignorant freedmen, governed these States, as a rule, in the most infamous manner. These men were nicknamed "carpetbaggers."

Martial law in the South.

Seward.

The Emperor of the French not only endeavored to split the great Republic in two, but tried to establish an empire in Mexico. Taking advantage of the Civil War, when the United States had its hands full to preserve its integrity and power among the nations of the earth, he sent an army to place an Austrian prince named Maximilian on the Mexican throne. He well knew that such conduct on his part was contrary to the "Monroe Doctrine." The Mexicans would not submit, and under Juarez and other leaders they maintained the independence of their country. A price was placed on the head of Juarez, dead or alive ; and the great patriot was reduced almost to despair, when the termination of the Confederate War in the United States enabled the Federal government to extend its sympathy, and, if need be, its support, to the Republican party in Mexico.

Mexico's independence threatened.

William H. Seward, Secretary of State, requested the French Emperor to withdraw his troops, or take the consequences of a refusal. The hero of Bologne and subsequently of Sedan did

not hesitate to grant the request. The French army left Mexico, and Maximilian was abandoned to his fate. Juarez now raised a powerful force, with which he defeated and captured the unfortunate Austrian prince, whom he instantly put to death. The republic of Mexico was reëstablished, and the attempt to found an empire on the North American continent failed ingloriously.

Cyrus W. Field had made several attempts to connect Europe with America by means of a telegraphic cable. After expending vast sums of money, one was laid in 1858, through which communication between Great Britain and the United States was established, but for a few weeks only. In 1866,

Atlantic Cable.

Mr. Field, with a perseverance worthy of the greatest praise, succeeded in laying another cable, using for that purpose the *Great Eastern*, then the largest vessel ever built. This cable connected Valentia Bay, Ireland, with Hearts Content, Newfoundland; thus joining the Old World and the New.

It is remarkable that by far the greater portion of the present United States was obtained not by conquest, but by purchase. Jefferson purchased the Louisiana Territory from France; Monroe, Florida from Spain; Polk, the vast region extending from

Purchase of Alaska.

Texas to and including California from Mexico; and Seward, the great territory of Alaska, with the Aleutian Islands, from Russia. The sum paid to Russia for 550,000 square miles of territory was $7,200,000. Alaska is valuable for its fisheries, especially for the seal, and for its furs of many kinds.

Nebraska admitted.

During Johnson's administration one new State was admitted into the Union — Nebraska, in 1887.

In the general election of 1868 Ulysses S. Grant and Schuyler Colfax were the Republican, and Horatio Seymour and Frank P. Blair the Democratic, candidates for the presidency and vice presidency. The Republicans carried the country by a very large majority, and Grant was elected President.

Election of Grant.

Grant's Administration (1869–1877).

Shortly after Grant's inauguration the Union Pacific Railroad was completed. This was one of the greatest achievements of modern times. It bound the east to the west with iron links, and prevented the establishment of what some people feared — a republic on the Pacific slope. It opened for settlement the vast territory between the Mississippi and California; it gave access to the mineral wealth of Nevada and Colorado, and the fertile plains of the Dakotas; it made the great land purchases from France and Mexico of immense value; and it enabled the merchants of the east to receive the teas of China and Japan, and the spices of the East Indies, in less than a month.

Union Pacific Railroad.

Grant.

The reconstruction of the South was not completed until 1870, when representatives and senators were admitted to Congress from all the States which had seceded in 1860 and 1861. The disorders created by the discontented white people in States where the colored people were in the majority compelled Congress to pass the "Force Bill," which placed some of the Southern States under military rule, for the purpose of giving the negro protection in his exercise of the right of the franchise bestowed upon him by the Fifteenth Amendment.

"Force Bill."

During 1871 an immense and destructive fire occurred in Chicago, and in 1872 another in Boston; but the energetic and enterprising citizens of those cities quickly recovered their losses.

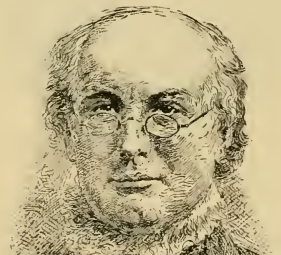
Fires in Chicago and Boston.

In 1871 a treaty was made between Great Britain and the United States, called the treaty of Washington, by which the former agreed to pay the latter damages to the amount of $15,500,000, for injuries inflicted on American commerce by the *Alabama* and other vessels fitted out in English ports. It is safe to say that had such a claim been made by the United States at the close of the Revolutionary War, or the War of 1812, Great Britain would have haughtily refused to admit it. But the American Republic had proved itself a very powerful nation.

Treaty of Washington.

In 1872 there was considerable disaffection toward Grant's administration. Many Republicans desired a change; and in order to accomplish this purpose the Liberals (as they were called) nominated Horace Greeley, a distinguished antislavery editor, whose nomination was subsequently indorsed by the Democrats. Horace Greeley, as editor of the New York *Tribune*, wielded an influence never equaled by any other editor in America; and yet his early education was obtained by a few months' attendance at a country school. Grant carried the country by an overwhelming majority.

Reëlection of Grant.



Greeley.

In 1873 a great financial panic occurred, similar to the panics of 1837 and 1857. It was caused by over speculation in the bonds and stocks of new railroads which had been constructed in advance of the increase in population. It was precipitated by the failure of Jay Cooke's banking house in Philadelphia. Thousands were ruined in the general crash; and so disastrous was the panic that the Federal government was compelled to suspend payments on the national debt.

Panic of 1873.

In 1872 the northwestern boundary line was settled by the decision of the German Emperor in favor of the United States. The year 1876 was remarkable for the centennial celebration of the Declaration of Independence, held in Philadelphia.

Centennial Celebration of 1876.

There were two Indian wars during Grant's administration, the *Modoc* and the *Sioux*. In the former General Canby was treacherously slain, and in the latter General Custer, a distinguished cavalry officer, was killed.

Indian Wars.

The people of Colorado ratified their constitution in 1876, and immediately afterwards that territory was admitted as a State.

Colorado admitted.

The presidential election of 1876 came very near terminating in a "War of Succession." The Republican candidates for President and Vice President were Rutherford B. Hayes and William A. Wheeler; and the Democratic candidates were Samuel J. Tilden and Thomas A. Hendricks. The contest between the Democrats and Republicans was bitter, the former favoring the withdrawal of troops from the South and a general reform in the Federal Administration, and the latter the protection of the negro in his right of suffrage by an armed force.

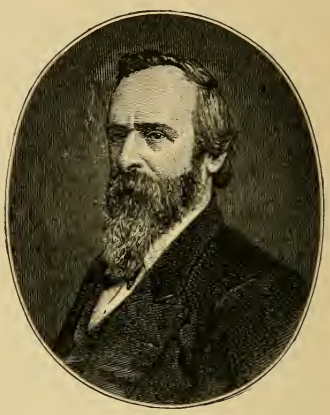
On the face of the returns Samuel J. Tilden was duly elected; but some of the Republican leaders insisted that the States of South Carolina, Florida, and Louisiana had been carried by the Democrats by fraud and intimidation. In these States there were "Returning Boards" which were induced to throw out a sufficient number of votes to elect Hayes by *one* majority in the Electoral College. The whole country was very much agitated, and divided into two hostile camps, each claiming that its candidate was chosen President. Finally, when matters had reached the dangerous point, it was determined to appoint an Electoral Commission, consisting of five members of the House of Representatives, five senators, and five justices of the Supreme Court, whose decision would terminate the contest. By a party vote of eight to seven, Hayes was declared President, and duly inaugurated.

Election of Hayes.

Hayes's Administration (1877–1881).

Withdrawal of troops.

Although there were a few in the North opposed to the withdrawal of the United States troops from the States lately in rebellion, the great majority of the people hailed the measure with delight as the harbinger of real peace. Very soon after this event the native white population gained control of the States, and "carpetbag" and negro rule disappeared.



Hayes.

The resumption of specie payments by the Federal government on the 1st of January, 1879, was an event of far-reaching influence as regards the general prosperity of the republic. In the fourth year of the war there were, as before stated, periods when the "greenback" was worth less than forty cents in specie. Gradually, after the conclusion of the civil contest, this paper dollar increased in value, until at the date above mentioned it was worth a hundred cents.

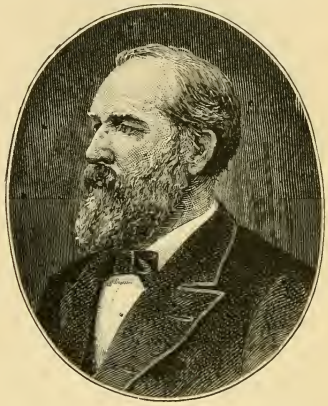
A number of great railroad riots occurred in 1877. They commenced with strikes in the Northern States, which extended as far west as California, and in a short time a hundred and fifty thousand men were out of work. In Pittsburg the rioters seized and plundered freight cars, and destroyed property to the value of several millions of dollars. The United States troops were finally called out by the President, and they quickly suppressed the riot and restored order.

Railroad riots.

During Hayes's administration a treaty was made with China which enabled the Federal government to limit the Chinese

immigration. Great numbers of Mongolians had settled in California and other western States and Territories, and had become exceedingly obnoxious to the white inhabitants, for the reason that these strangers are willing to work for low wages, and thus reduce the compensation of American workmen. Besides, they did not emigrate to remain in and become citizens of the United States, but only to make money with which to return to their own country.

Treaty with China.



Garfield.

In the general election of 1880 the Republican candidates, James A. Garfield and Chester A. Arthur, were chosen President and Vice President. The defeated Democratic candidates were Winfield Scott Hancock, the hero of Gettysburg, and William H. English of Indiana.

Garfield's Administration (1881).

On July 2, nearly four months after Garfield's inauguration, while on his way to the railway station, accompanied by Mr. Blaine, his Secretary of State, for the purpose of visiting friends in New England, the President was shot by a disappointed office-seeker. Garfield lingered between life and death for more than two months, and in spite of the best medical aid in the country died, Sept. 19, at Elberon, N.J., where he had been carried in the hope that the sea breezes of the Atlantic would assist in his recovery. This untimely death of a man who gave promise of directing an excellent administration was lamented not only by the people of the United States, but by the civilized world at large.

Assassination of Garfield.

Arthur's Administration (1881–1885).

In accordance with the Constitution, Chester A. Arthur, the Vice President, on Garfield's death took the oath of office as President.

Arthur.

The overflow of the Mississippi in 1882 destroyed vast amounts of property in Louisiana, and left over a hundred thousand people homeless. Congress sent cargoes of food to the devastated districts, and saved the inhabitants from starvation.

During this administration postage was reduced in all parts of the United States from three to two cents.

The assassination of President Garfield, the greed for office of the professional politician, and the insistence of the pernicious sentiment that, "to the victors belong the spoils," caused Congress to pass a bill giving the President power to appoint commissioners to examine into the qualifications of persons seeking office in the lower grades. From lists of candidates whom the examiners found fitted, the President could make his appointments. This reform, if faithfully enforced, would relieve the chief magistrate from great annoyance, and give him more time to attend to affairs of state. As the Republic increases in wealth and population, and as the offices to be filled increase in a corresponding ratio, the necessity for the rigid execution of the Civil Service Act becomes more and more important.

Civil Service Act.

In 1884 the candidates for the presidency and vice presidency were Grover Cleveland of New York and Thomas A. Hendricks of Indiana, nominated by the Democrats; and James

G. Blaine of Maine and John A. Logan of Illinois, by the Republicans. The People's party and the Prohibitionists also nominated candidates. Many dissatisfied voters of the Republican party supported Cleveland in preference to Blaine. This defection caused the defeat of the latter. But even then the change of five or six hundred votes in New York would have elected Mr. Blaine. Since the time of James Buchanan the Republican party had been successful in every presidential election; and now, for the first time in a quarter of a century, the Democratic party came into power. All eyes were turned toward Mr. Cleveland to see how he would administer the affairs of the nation.

Election of Cleveland.

CLEVELAND'S FIRST ADMINISTRATION (1885–1889).

A law was passed making provision for filling the office of President in the event of the death or disability of both the President and Vice President. By this law the succession devolved on the members of the Cabinet in the following order: the Secretary of State, the Secretary of the Treasury, the Secretary of War, the Attorney-general, the Postmaster-general, the Secretary of the Navy, and the Secretary of the Interior.

Presidential succession.

Cleveland.

Congress passed the Interstate Commerce Act, which regulated the charges made by railroads passing through different States, with the view of establishing just and uniform rates for freight and passengers.

It also passed another more stringent Chinese Act, which prohibited the admission of Chinese into any part of the

United States. An exception, however, was made in favor of officials connected with the legation, of teachers, students, merchants, and travelers for pleasure. Nevertheless, the law was easily evaded; for the Chinese immigrants could land on any part of British North America and readily cross the boundary line.

Acts of Congress.

In 1886, strikes of great magnitude occurred throughout the country. Some struck for higher wages, and others to make eight hours a day's labor. The relations between labor and capital were so strained that there was great danger of a general outbreak which would imperil every kind of property. Railroads ceased for a time to carry freight or passengers, because the strikers would neither work themselves nor permit others to work. In Chicago alone forty thousand men were on strike, and among them anarchists and communists, who seized the opportunity to accomplish their base purposes by the use of dynamite. A meeting of the worst class of citizens was held at the Haymarket, where the most violent and incendiary speeches were delivered. The police, fearing a riot, endeavored to scatter the mob; and, while doing so, some miscreant threw a dynamite bomb among them, which killed seven, and wounded sixty, of the officers. Several of the ringleaders were subsequently arrested and punished.

Labor troubles.

Toward the close of Cleveland's administration the question of the tariff began to assume a position of great importance; and it soon became evident that, the old issues of the Civil War having virtually disappeared, the reform of the tariff would be the chief plank in the Democratic platform. The Republican party was strongly in favor of protecting American manufactures. Cleveland wrote a letter urging a tariff for revenue only, which the Republicans insisted meant free trade. The presidential election of 1888 turned mainly on these two questions; and Cleveland was defeated by Benjamin Harrison of Indiana, a grandson of President William Henry Harrison.

The tariff.

Harrison's Administration (1889–1893).

In 1889 the territory of Oklahoma was purchased from the Indians. Thousands of settlers were waiting for the opening of this territory, and within a few days its inhabitants numbered thirty thousand. Oklahoma.

There was a centennial celebration in the city of New York of the inauguration of Washington as President under the Federal Constitution, and the review of the military, and the parades of societies and trades, surpassed anything ever seen before in the United States.

Harrison.

Four great war steamers were completed during this administration, the *Chicago*, *Atlanta*, *Boston*, and *Yorktown*, which are a credit to the Republic which they represent in foreign seas.

Admission of new States.

During Harrison's administration there were six new States admitted into the Union; viz., North Dakota, South Dakota, Montana, Washington, Idaho, and Wyoming, the first four in 1889, and the last two in 1890.

Serious riots occurred in New Orleans by which a number of Italians were killed or wounded. The direct cause was the assassination of the chief of police by the members of a secret organization known as the "Mafia."

Second election of Cleveland.

The Democratic candidates in November, 1892, were: Grover Cleveland for President, and Adlai Stevenson for Vice President; and the Republican candidates, Benjamin Harrison for President, and Whitelaw Reid for Vice President. Cleveland and Stevenson were elected.

Cleveland's Second Administration (1893–).

World's Columbian Exposition.

On May 1, 1893, the World's Columbian Exhibition was opened in Chicago. This exhibition had been for several years in preparation, and the industries of the world, and its progress in arts, sciences, and literature during the period since the discovery of America, were represented on a tremendous scale by the various nations. The grounds devoted to the exposition covered more than a square mile on the lake front, and the buildings erected were unsurpassed in the beauty of their architecture.

Sherman Act.

In 1893 the country was depressed by a great financial panic, which was due to a variety of causes, but chiefly to an anxiety felt by the people over the effect of the silver purchasing clause of the Sherman Act of 1890. The discovery of a number of silver mines had led to a depreciation of silver, and in order to keep up the value of that metal as a money standard, a law was passed, known as the Sherman Act, which provided that the government should purchase four and a half million ounces of silver every month. An extra session of Congress was called, and the act was finally repealed in November, 1893.

Wilson-Gorman Bill.

The next question which agitated the country was in relation to the tariff. In 1894 the Wilson-Gorman Bill was passed which reduced the tariff on many imported articles, and added others to the free list.

In the summer of 1894 the western part of the country was paralyzed by an extensive railroad strike, which originated in Chicago. By July 1 the strike had extended from Ohio westward to California, and had assumed vast proportions. In Chicago there were such outbursts of violence that the militia was finally called out to quell the disturbance. Numerous conflicts occurred until Aug. 6, when the strike was declared at an end.

In March, 1895, a new treaty was made between Japan and the United States, by which the latter recognized Japan's right, as a modern power, to control her domestic imports and other affairs.

Admission of Utah.

In July, 1894, a bill was passed by Congress enabling the people of Utah Territory to form a State constitution, and providing for its subsequent admission into the Union as the forty-fifth State, and early in January, 1896, it was admitted, thus leaving but five territories — New Mexico, Arizona, Oklahoma, Indian Territory, and Alaska, besides the District of Columbia.

CHAPTER L.

BRIEF SKETCH OF THE RISE OF AMERICAN LITERATURE.

"None but an author knows an author's cares,
Or Fancy's fondness for the child she bears."

THE predominant passion of the period determines the literary bent of the people. When war and conquest are uppermost in the mind, battles and sieges are usually the themes of orators and poets. The ballad, the oration, and the epic poem become the vehicles through which the emotions are reached and aroused. Among the early settlers of New England the religious feeling grew into a master passion. It molded their social life; it shaped their township governments; it was the mainspring of all their actions, private and public. It was only natural, therefore, that American literature should originate among the Puritans, and that its beginnings should be of a theological character. The first thing these people did, after building their simple homes, was to erect a church and a schoolhouse in every hamlet and village; so that it may safely be affirmed that illiteracy was practically unknown. The Bible, of course, became the common reading book and the great teacher. Differences and discussions arose; and the expounding of the Scriptures became the medium through which logical acuteness and intellectual ability were most readily manifested.

Cotton Mather.

Cotton Mather, the first theological writer, was born in 1663, and died in 1728. His mother was the daughter of the celebrated John Cotton. On his father's side he was descended from a family of ministers who exercised great influence in New England during its first century. His father, Increase Mather, was president of Harvard College most of the time from 1681 to 1701, and the author of sixty books or tracts. Cotton was graduated from this insti-

tution at the early age of sixteen, and for a short period practiced the profession of teaching. He became an excellent scholar; and his works were published in English, French, Spanish, and Algonquin. Three hundred and eighty-two of his printed works have been catalogued. The *Biblia Americana*, his greatest work, remains in six large volumes of manuscript to this day. His learning, however, was better appreciated in Europe than it was in America. Glasgow made him a doctor of divinity; and he was elected a fellow of the Royal Society.

Edwards.

Jonathan Edwards was born at East Windsor, Conn., in 1703, and died in 1758 at Princeton, of which college he had been chosen president. He was, perhaps, the most able theologian that America has produced. Like Mather, he was sprung from a family of ministers. He began the study of Latin at the age of six, and afterwards acquired a good knowledge of Greek and Hebrew. He was graduated from Yale College, in which he became for a short time a tutor. His mind, naturally acute and introspective, was greatly influenced by the study of Locke's *Human Understanding*. Owing to certain defects of person and speech he was not a successful preacher. It is by his writings that he has become famous. His most powerful work is his essay on the *Freedom of the Human Will*.

Hooker, Hopkins, and Dwight.

Some of the other theological writers during the period of religious literature were Thomas Hooker, who wrote the *Application of Redemption;* Samuel Hopkins, the author of a *System of Doctrines Contained in Divine Revelation Explained and Defended*, and of a *Dialogue against Slavery;* and Timothy Dwight, the grandson of Edwards, who wrote the *Conquest of Canaan*.

Otis, Henry, and Adams.

The political period of American literature began its course at the close of the French and Indian War. Although the people of New England never lost their religious enthusiasm, the tyranny of Great Britain in her efforts to tax the colonies without representation in parliament — in other words, without their consent — aroused a pas-

sionate love of freedom, which found vent in political orations and pamphlets. Among these orators were James Otis and John Adams of Massachusetts, and Patrick Henry of Virginia.

Benjamin Franklin, the greatest writer of this period, was born in Boston in 1706, and died in Philadelphia in 1790. In him were combined the excellences of the philosopher, the diplomat, the statesman, and the polished writer. At the age of ten he began to help in his father's shop. A little later he was apprenticed as a printer to his elder brother. Here the boy had access to books, of which he made the best possible use. By close study and by rewriting the essays of the *Spectator*, he formed an easy, graceful, and fluent style. At the age of fifteen he wrote anonymously for newspapers. At seventeen he went to Philadelphia which henceforth became his home. In 1729, he became the editor of the *Pennsylvania Gazette*, and three years later began the publication of *Poor Richard's Almanac*. He made the important discovery of the identity of lightning with electricity. He was highly honored by the people of his adopted State, of which he was three times elected governor. He was appointed minister to France, and was chiefly instrumental in forming the alliance with that country — an alliance which proved so important a factor in the success of the American Revolution. His writings are remarkable for sound common sense, great worldly wisdom, clearness, simplicity, wit, and humor.

Franklin.

Thomas Jefferson was born in 1743 and died in 1826. He is best known as the author of the *Declaration of Independence*, which, as a state paper, has never been surpassed. It is remarkable for its clearness, force, directness, and invincible adherence to truth. It is a terrible indictment of the tyranny of George III. and his ministers.

Jefferson.

Alexander Hamilton, James Madison, and John Jay wrote the celebrated essays known as the *Federalist*, explanatory of the principles of government contained in the *Constitution* of the United States.

Hamilton, Madison, and Jay.

The most polished and able writer of these essays was Alexander Hamilton.

With the establishment of peace and the settlement of the government, literature took a new direction, namely, that of the novel.

Charles Brockden Brown was born in 1771, and died in 1810. He was the first American who pursued literature as a profession. His first work was *Weiland; or, the Transformation.* This was followed by *Ormond; or, the Secret Witness*, *Arthur Mervin*, *Clara Howard*, and *Jane Talbot.* He also edited the *Monthly Magazine* and *American Review.* Prescott says, "He has been said to have formed himself on Godwin, and has certainly in some respects adopted his mode of operation, studying character with a philosophic rather than a poetic eye." Brown.

Irving.

Washington Irving was born in 1783, and died in 1859. He has been justly termed the "American Goldsmith," on account of the ease, grace, and beauty of his style. In conjunction with his brother William, and with James K. Paulding, he published a humorous and satirical magazine entitled *Salmagundi.* His humorous *History of New York by Diedrich Knickerbocker*, attracted much attention, and *The Sketch Book* established his fame among the English-speaking people of both hemispheres. Irving. Irving wrote numerous other works, among which may be mentioned *Tales of a Traveler*, *The Life and Voyages of Columbus*, *Mahomet and His Successors*, and *The Life of Washington*, the last being considered by some as his greatest work.

James Fenimore Cooper was born in 1789, and died in 1851. He was in most respects the greatest novelist that America has produced. He pursued his studies for three years at Yale College, and then obtained a midshipman's commission in the navy, in which he served for five years. It was this experience as a naval officer which enabled him with such admirable skill to describe the movements of ships in storm and in battle.

Cooper.

His first novel, *Precaution*, was a comparative failure; but his second, *The Spy*, was a great success. It has been translated into most of the European languages. It is, however, by his novels which treat of the North American Indians and of the pioneer or backwoodsman that he is best and most widely known. Among these may be mentioned *The Pathfinder* and *The Last of the Mohicans*. In these he has manifested a graphic power in describing scenery unsurpassed by any other writer except, perhaps, by the "Wizard of the North," in his descriptions of lake and mountain in "Auld Scotia." Besides his thirty-four novels, he wrote a *History of the United States Navy*.

James K. Paulding was born in 1779, and died in 1860. He was associated (as previously stated) with Irving in writing

Paulding.

the humorous essays in *Salmagundi*. He wrote the *Diverting History of John Bull and Brother Jonathan*, *The Backwoodsman*, *The Dutchman's Fireside*, and several other novels remarkable for a vein of humorous satire.

Joseph Rodman Drake was born in 1795, and died in 1820.

Drake.

He wrote *The Culprit Fay*, a beautiful poem exhibiting a high order of imagination; and, in 1819, *The American Flag*, which has been very much admired.

Fitz-Greene Halleck was born in 1790, and died in 1867. He wrote sometimes in conjunction with Drake, under the

Halleck.

name of Croaker & Co. In 1820 he published a poem entitled *Fanny*, a satire upon the fashionable follies of the day. The poem, however, by which he is best known is *Marco Bozzaris*, one of the finest warlike lyrics in the English language.

William Cullen Bryant was born in 1794, and died in 1878. Like Pope, he began to write verses in childhood. In 1816, at the age of nineteen, he produced *Thanatopsis*, by most people considered his finest poem. In 1825 he became editor of *The Evening Post*, a position which he held for fifty years. He was an ardent advocate of the restriction of slavery and of the cause of the Union during the Civil War. Most of his poems treat of Nature in some form, and they are all intensely American. *The Death of the Flowers*, *To the Fringed Gentian*, and *To a Waterfowl*, are among the most beautiful of his poems.

Bryant.

William H. Prescott was born in 1796, and died in 1859. He was a grandson of a distinguished officer of the Revolutionary War, who commanded the Americans at the battle of Bunker Hill. His father was a celebrated lawyer and a judge of the Court of Common Pleas of Massachusetts. While a student in Harvard College Prescott lost by an accident the sight of one eye; and the excessive use of the other eye so impaired it that it became almost blind. In spite of this, he commenced a course of reading (by being read to), which included the best works in English, French, Italian, and Spanish literature. He was particularly fascinated by the works of Lope de Vega and Cervantes. These studies seemed to have determined his literary bent. His first production, *The History of Ferdinand and Isabella*, raised him to the front rank of historians. Then followed *The Conquest of Mexico*, *The Conquest of Peru*, and *The History of Philip II. of Spain.* Prescott's works are remarkable for conscientious research, clearness, beauty of style, and perfect impartiality.

Prescott.

George Bancroft was born in 1800, and died in 1891. He has written the most thorough and perfect *History of the United States* yet produced. It has been the loving labor of a long life, and has received the highest praise from the critics of Europe and America. It is clear and accurate, and invaluable as a reference book.

Bancroft.

John Lothrop Motley was born in 1814, and died in 1877. He has written three great historical works, *The Rise of the Dutch Republic*, *The History of the United Netherlands*, and *The Life of John of Barneveld.* Several other historians might be mentioned were there room in a short chapter such as this must necessarily be. Of living historians John Fiske and McMaster have done the best work; and there seems a bright future for both of them.

Motley, Fiske, and McMaster.

Ralph Waldo Emerson was born in Boston in 1803, and died in 1882. He was educated for the ministry, but soon left the church and devoted himself to giving lectures. These lectures, somewhat modified and polished, make up his famous *Essays.* He had a strong faith in human nature, and tried to inspire his hearers with high ideals. He is also well known as a poet, one of his most beautiful poems being the *Concord Hymn.*

Emerson.

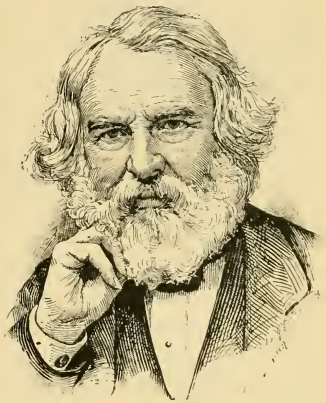
Emerson.

Nathaniel Hawthorne was born in 1804, in Salem, and died in 1864. He passed his early days in great solitude, with only his thoughts and his books for companions. He created a new style of writing, which he called the *romance.* In 1837 a number of his tales which had appeared in pamphlet form were published under the title of *Twice Told Tales;* and in 1850 he brought forth his first larger work, *The Scarlet Letter.* Thereafter he wrote prolifically for old and young alike. *The Marble Faun* is one of the best products of his genius. His stories for children, *The Wonder Book* and *Tanglewood Tales*, are especially charming; and all his works are characterized by intense originality.

Hawthorne.

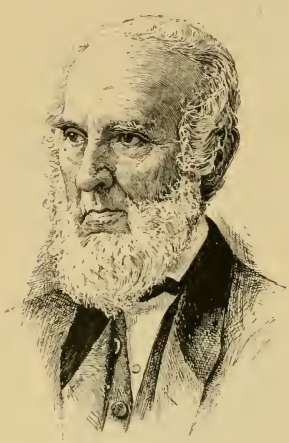
Henry Wadsworth Longfellow was born in Portland, Maine, in 1807, and died in 1882. From his youth up he was fond of reading, and as a lad he loved nothing better than to lie under a tree with a book in his hand. At the age of thirteen he entered Bowdoin College, and he was graduated at seventeen. The college authorities thought so highly of his abilities that they sent him to Europe to prepare himself as professor of modern languages; and for three years he traveled through France, Italy, Spain, and Germany, making himself thoroughly familiar with the languages. He returned to America in 1829; and he was then, with the exception of George Ticknor (the professor of modern languages at Harvard), the most accomplished scholar in the country in the languages of Europe. After teaching for five years at Bowdoin he was elected a professor of Harvard College, where he taught for seventeen years, during which time he produced many of his most popular poems. He is entitled to the highest rank among American poets. His first work, *Voices of the Night*, made him famous, as it were, by a single bound. This was followed in regular order by *Ballads and other Poems*, *The Spanish Student*, *Poets and Poetry of Europe*, *Evangeline*, *The Golden Legend*, *The Song of Hiawatha*, and *The Courtship of Miles Standish*. His prose works are *Hyperion*, *Outre Mer*, and *Kavanagh*. *The Song of Hiawatha* is the most American and popular of all his works. His poetry is remarkable for depth and tenderness of feeling, and the charm and sweetness of its rhythm. His *Psalm of Life* is one of the very best short poems in the English language.

Longfellow.



Longfellow.

John Greenleaf Whittier was born in 1807, at Haverhill, Mass., and died in 1892. In some respects he is the most national of all American poets. He has written some of the most spirit-stirring and inspiring poems which appeared during the great anti-slavery agitation. His principal poems are *Songs of Labor*, *The Chapel of the Hermits*, *Home Ballads and Poems*, *In War Time*, *National Lyrics*, *Snowbound*, *The Tent on the Beach*, and *Ballads of New England*.



Whittier.

Edgar Allan Poe was born in Boston in 1809, and died in 1849. At an early age he gave evidence of literary genius, and he proved himself one of the most original writers our country has produced; but his life was a sad failure, and he died in poverty in his prime. His writings consisted of short stories and poems, the most famous of his poems being *The Raven*.

Poe.

Oliver Wendell Holmes was born in Cambridge in 1809, and died in 1894. He devoted himself to medicine as a profession, and became one of the most eminent physicians of Boston. In the midst of his busy career he found time to send occasional poems to the reviews of the day, but it was not until 1857 that he made himself famous in literature by the publication of *The Autocrat of the Breakfast Table*, the first of the series of essays in which his deep thoughts on human nature and his sparkling wit found full play. Later Holmes wrote several novels, but it is by his essays and some of his poems that he is best known and beloved.

Holmes.

James Russell Lowell was born in Cambridge in 1819, and died in 1891. At the age of twenty-five he married Miss

White, an ardent abolitionist, and thereafter he devoted himself unswervingly to the antislavery cause, which he greatly encouraged and aided by his passionate poems. Lowell is also famous for his essays, *Among My Books*, *My Study Windows*, and others.

Lowell.

Harriet Beecher Stowe was born in 1811. She owes her popularity to a novel on slavery — *Uncle Tom's Cabin* — which has been more widely read and more extensively translated than any other work of the century. Its influence in gaining supporters to the cause of abolition has been incalculable.

Stowe.

Limited space will not permit more than the mere mention of a host of other brilliant writers, such as Whitman, Curtis, Whipple, Thoreau, Parkman, Stedman, Read, Taylor, Holland, Eggleston, Hale, Warner, and Clemens; and among women, Margaret Fuller, Louisa May Alcott, Adeline D. T. Whitney, Elizabeth Stuart Phelps, Frances Hodgson Burnett, and Harriet Prescott Spofford.

Other authors.

TRANSFERS OF TERRITORY

IN

THE UNITED STATES.

(*The numerals refer to the map on the next page.*)

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1 and 2.—Part of original State of Massachusetts erected into State of Maine, 1820.
3.—Part of public land of the United States.
4.—One of original thirteen States.
5.—Formed into State of Vermont in 1791 out of the State of New York.
6.—One of original thirteen States; included 1 and 2, and extended west to the Mississippi River.
7.—One of original thirteen States.
8.—One of original thirteen States; originally extended west to the Mississippi River.
9.—One of original thirteen States; originally including 5; a claim of Massachusetts to portion of territory of southern New York was settled in 1786 by a convention at Hartford.
10.—One of original thirteen States.
11.—One of original thirteen States; in 1792, 89 added.
12.—One of original thirteen States.
13.—One of original thirteen States; originally embraced 13 and 14.
14.—Ceded to the United States for a capital city by Maryland in 1790.
15.—Ceded to the United States for a capital city by Virginia in 1790; retroceded to Virginia by United States in 1846.
16.—One of original thirteen States; originally embraced 15, 16, 17, 18, 54, and 55.
17.—Formed into State of West Virginia out of Virginia in 1863.
18.—Formed into State of Kentucky, 1792, out of Virginia.
19.—One of original thirteen States; originally embraced 19 and 20.
20.—Ceded to United States by North Carolina in 1790, and with 23, 24, and 28 erected into the Territory south of the Ohio River; admitted as State, 1796.
21.—One of original thirteen States; originally comprised 21, 23, 24, and 28.
22.—One of original thirteen States; originally comprised 22, 25, 26, 27, and 29.
23.—Ceded by South Carolina to United States in 1787; in 1790 transferred to Territory south of Ohio River (23, 24, 28, and 20); in 1802 ceded to Georgia.
24.—Ceded by South Carolina to United States in 1787; in 1790 transferred to Territory south of Ohio River; in 1804 to Mississippi Territory; in 1817 to Alabama Territory, and in 1819 to State of Alabama.
25.—Ceded by Georgia to United States, 1802; transferred to Mississippi Territory, 1804; to Alabama Territory, 1817; and to State of Alabama, 1819.
26.—Erected, with 27, into Mississippi Territory, 1798, subject to Georgia's claims, which were ceded to the United States, 1802; to Alabama Territory 1817; to State of Alabama, 1819.
27.—Same as 26 until 1817, when erected into State of Mississippi.
28.—Ceded to United States by South Carolina, 1787; joined to Territory south of Ohio River, 1790; transferred to Mississippi Territory, 1804; and to State of Mississippi, 1817.

Longitude We
125°
121°
117°
113°
109°
105°
B R I T I S H
P
PACIFIC
OCEAN
Acquired
WASHINGTON
Columbia R.
Exploration
and
Settlement
OREGON
Snake R.
Acquired
M O N T A N A
NORTH
DAKOTA
92
91
83
84
85
86
87
88
43
42
41°
SOUTH
DAKOTA
WYOMING
82
79
80
81
Missouri R.
56
NEBRASKA
Mexican Cession
NEVADA
UTAH
COLORADO
70
71
72
73
74
75
76
77
78
37°
CALIFORNIA
69
63
62
58
57
Arkansas River
KANSAS
Purchase
Louisiana
64
59
93
OKLAHOMA
Red
Colorado River
66
65
ARIZONA
Rio Grande del Norte
NEW MEXICO
Texas
Cession
Texan
Annexation
Gila River
67
68
61
Second Mexican Cession
or Gadsden Purchase 1853
33°
29°
M E X I C O
170°
A S I A
ARCTIC OCEAN
25°
90
ALASKA
or
Russian Cession
1867
Bering Sea
BRITISH
POSSESSIONS
66°
65°
21°
PACIFIC
OCEAN
40°
36°
32°
28°
Longitude We

UISITION AND DISTRIBUTION OF TERRITORY.

By Russell Hinman, C.E.

29.—Ceded to United States by Georgia, 1802; transferred to Mississippi Territory, 1804; and to State of Mississippi, 1817.

30.—Ceded to United States by France, 1803; transferred to Mississippi Territory, 1812; and to State of Mississippi, 1817.

31.—Ceded to United States by France, 1803; transferred to Mississippi Territory, 1812; to Alabama Territory, 1817; State of Alabama, 1819.

32.—Ceded to United States by Spain, 1819; erected into Florida Territory, 1822; into State of Florida, 1845.

33.—Ceded to United States by France, 1803; transferred to State of Louisiana, 1812.

34.—Ceded to United States by France, 1803; erected into Territory of Orleans, 1804; admitted as State of Louisiana, 1812.

35.*—Ceded to United States by France, 1803; included in district Louisiana in 1804; in Territory Louisiana, 1805; in Territory Missouri, 1812; erected into Arkansas Territory, 1819; admitted as State of Arkansas, 1836.

36.—Admitted as State of Missouri, 1821.

37.—Added to State of Missouri, 1836.

38.—Annexed to Territory of Michigan, 1834; to Territory Wisconsin, 1836; to Territory Iowa, 1838; admitted as part of State of Iowa, 1846.

39.—Same as above to and including admission to Territory Iowa; transferred to State of Iowa, 1846.

40.—Same as 39; transferred from State to Territory Iowa, 1846; to Territory Minnesota, 1849; to State Minnesota, 1858.

41.—Annexed to Territory Michigan, 1834; Territory Wisconsin, 1836; Territory Iowa, 1838; Territory Minnesota, 1849; State Minnesota, 1858.

42.—As above, to and including Territory Minnesota, 1849; included in Territory Dakota, 1861; to State South Dakota, 1889.

43.—Transferred from Territory Missouri to Territory Nebraska, 1854; to Territory Dakota, 1861; to State South Dakota, 1889.

44.—Ceded by Great Britain, 1783; included in Territory northwest Ohio River, 1787; to Territory Indiana, 1800; to Territory Illinois, 1809; to Territory Michigan, 1818; to Territory Wisconsin, 1836; to Territory Minnesota, 1849; to State Minnesota, 1858.

45.—As above, to and including Territory Wisconsin, 1836; admitted as State Wisconsin, 1848.

46.—As 44, to and including Territory Michigan, 1818; to State Michigan, 1837.

47.—Ceded by Great Britain, 1783; Territory northwest Ohio River, 1787; Territory Indiana, 1800; Territory Michigan, 1818; Territory Wisconsin, 1836; State Wisconsin, 1848.

48.—Ceded by Great Britain, 1783; transferred to Territory northwest Ohio River, 1787; Territory Indiana, 1800; Territory Michigan, 1818; State Michigan, 1837.

49.—Ceded by Great Britain, 1783; transferred to Territory northwest Ohio River, 1787; Territory Indiana, 1800; Territory Michigan, 1805; State Michigan, 1837.

50.—Ceded by Great Britain; transferred to Territory northwest Ohio River, 1787; Territory Indiana, 1802; Territory Michigan, 1805; State Michigan, 1837.

51.—Ceded by Great Britain, 1783; transferred to Territory northwest Ohio River, 1787; to Territory Michigan, 1805; to State Ohio, 1836.

52.—Ceded by Great Britain, 1783; transferred to Territory northwest Ohio River, 1787; Territory Indiana, 1800; Territory Michigan, 1805; to State Indiana, 1816.

53.—North of 41st parallel ceded by Great Britain, 1783; south of same by Virginia, 1784; Territory northwest Ohio River, 1787; admitted as State Ohio, 1803.

54.—North of 41st parallel ceded by Great Britain, 1783; south of same by Virginia, 1784; Territory northwest Ohio River, 1787; Territory Indiana, 1800; State Indiana, 1816.

55.—North of 41st parallel ceded by Great Britain, 1783; south of same by Virginia, 1784; Territory northwest Ohio River, 1787; Territory Indiana, 1800; Territory Illinois, 1809; State Illinois, 1818.

56.—Territory Nebraska, 1854; State Nebraska, 1867.

57.—Territory Kansas, 1854; State Kansas, 1861.

58.—Ceded by Texas, 1850; transferred to Territory Kansas, 1854; State Kansas, 1861.

59.—Ceded by Texas, 1850; first organized with Oklahoma Territory, 1890.

60.—Ceded by France, 1803; declared "Indian country," 1834.

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*All of the French cession west of the Mississippi River (except 34) was ceded to the United States as the "Province of Louisiana" in 1803; erected into district of Louisiana, 1804; into Territory of Louisiana, 1805; into Territory of Missouri, 1812. The subsequent descriptions of territory within the French cession will be carried on from this point,—and a repetition of these changes common to all, avoided.

61.—The independent republic of Texas, admitted as State of Texas, 1845.
62.—Ceded by Texas, 1850; transferred to Territory Kansas, 1854; Territory Colorado, 1861; State Colorado, 1876.
63.—Ceded by Texas, 1850; transferred to Territory New Mexico, 1850; Territory Colorado, 1861; State Colorado, 1876.
64.—Ceded by Texas, 1850; transferred to Territory New Mexico, 1850.
65.—Ceded by Mexico, 1848; transferred to Territory New Mexico, 1850.
66.—Ceded by Mexico, 1848; transferred to Territory New Mexico, 1850; Territory Arizona, 1863.
67.—Ceded by Mexico, 1853; transferred to Territory New Mexico, 1854; to Territory Arizona, 1863.
68.—Ceded by Mexico, 1853; transferred to Territory New Mexico, 1854.
69.—Ceded by Mexico, 1848; transferred to Territory New Mexico, 1850; to Territory Arizona, 1863; to State Nevada, 1866.
70.—Ceded by Mexico, 1848; transferred to Territory Utah, 1850; Territory Nevada, 1861; erected into State Nevada, 1864.
71.—Ceded by Mexico, 1848; transferred to Territory Utah, 1850; State Nevada, 1866.
72.—Ceded by Mexico, 1848; admitted as State of California, 1850.
73.—Ceded by Mexico, 1848; Territory Utah, 1850; admitted as State, 1896.
74.—Ceded by Mexico, 1848; Territory Utah, 1850; Territory Colorado, 1861; State Colorado, 1876.
75.—Ceded by France, 1803; Territory Missouri to Territory Nebraska, 1854; Territory Colorado, 1861; State Colorado, 1876.
76.—Ceded by France, 1803; Territory Missouri to Territory Kansas, 1854; to Territory Colorado, 1861; to State Colorado, 1876.
77.—Ceded by Mexico, 1848, to Territory of Utah, 1850; Territory Nebraska, 1861; Territory Idaho, 1863; Ter. Dakota, 1864; Ter. Wyoming, 1868; State Wyoming, 1890.
78.—Ceded by Mexico, 1848; Territory Utah, 1850; Ter. Wyoming, 1868; State, 1890.
79.—(The claim of the United States to 79, 80, 84, 85, 86, and 87 is based upon first discovery of Columbia River in 1792; first exploration, by Lewis and Clark, in 1805; first settlement at Astoria, in 1811. Claims allowed by Spain in treaty of 1819, and by Great Britain in treaty of 1846) to Territory Oregon, 1848; Ter. Washington, 1853; Ter. Idaho, 1863; Ter. Wyoming, 1868; State Wyoming, 1890.
80.—See 79; to Territory Oregon, 1848; Ter. Washington, 1853; Ter. Nebraska, 1861; Ter. Idaho, 1863; Ter. Dakota, 1864; Ter. Wyoming, 1868; State Wyoming, 1890.
81.—Ceded by France in 1803 (except southwest corner, which was ceded by Mexico in 1848); transferred to Territory Nebraska, 1854; Territory Idaho, 1861; Territory Dakota, 1864; Territory Wyoming, 1868; State Wyoming, 1890.
82.—Ceded by France, 1803; transferred to Ter. Nebraska, 1854; Ter. Dakota, 1861; Ter. Idaho, 1863; Ter. Dakota, 1864; Ter. Wyoming, 1868; State Wyoming, 1890.
83.—Ceded by France, 1803; transferred to Territory Nebraska, 1854; Territory Dakota, 1861; Territory Idaho, 1863; Territory Montana, 1864; State Montana, 1889.
84.—See 79; to Territory Oregon, 1848; Territory Washington, 1853; Territory Idaho, 1863; Territory Montana, 1864; State Montana, 1889.
85.—See 79; to Territory Oregon, 1848; Territory Washington, 1853; Territory Idaho, 1863; State Idaho, 1890.
86.—See 79; to Territory Oregon, 1848; Territory Washington, 1853; State Washington, 1889.
87.—See 79; to Territory Oregon, 1848; State Oregon, 1859.
88.—Ceded by France, 1803; transferred to Territory Nebraska, 1854; Territory Dakota, 1861; Territory Idaho, 1863; Territory Dakota, 1864; Territory Montana, 1873; State Montana, 1889.
89.—Ceded by State of New York, 1781, and Massachusetts, 1785, to United States; transferred to Pennsylvania, 1792.
90.—Ceded by Russia, 1867; Territory of Alaska in 1884.
91.—As 42 to 1889 when it was transferred to State North Dakota.
92.—As 43 to 1889 when it was transferred to State North Dakota.
93.—Ceded by France, 1803; declared "Indian country," 1834; Territory Oklahoma, 1890.

THE DECLARATION OF INDEPENDENCE

IN CONGRESS, JULY 4, 1776.

THE UNANIMOUS DECLARATION OF THE THIRTEEN UNITED STATES OF AMERICA.

WHEN, in the course of human events, it becomes necessary for one people to dissolve the political bands which have connected them with another, and to assume, among the powers of the earth, the separate and equal station to which the laws of nature and of nature's God entitle them, a decent respect to the opinions of mankind requires that they should declare the causes which impel them to the separation.

We hold these truths to be self-evident: that all men are created equal; that they are endowed by their Creator with certain unalienable rights; that among these are life, liberty, and the pursuit of happiness. That, to secure these rights, governments are instituted among men, deriving their just powers from the consent of the governed. That, whenever any form of government becomes destructive of these ends, it is the right of the people to alter or to abolish it, and to institute new government, laying its foundation on such principles, and organizing its powers in such form as to them shall seem most likely to effect their safety and happiness. Prudence, indeed, will dictate, that governments long established should not be changed for light and transient causes; and, accordingly, all experience hath shown that mankind are more disposed to suffer, while evils are sufferable, than to right themselves by abolishing the forms to which they are accustomed. But when a long train of abuses and usurpations, pursuing invariably the same object, evinces a design to reduce them under absolute despotism, it is their right, it is their duty, to throw off such government, and to provide new guards for their future security. Such has been the patient sufferance of these colonies, and such is now the necessity which constrains them to alter their former systems of government. The history of the present King of Great Britain is a history of repeated injuries and usurpations, all having in

direct object the establishment of an absolute tyranny over these States. To prove this, let facts be submitted to a candid world:

He has refused his assent to laws the most wholesome and necessary for the public good.

He has forbidden his governors to pass laws of immediate and pressing importance, unless suspended in their operations till his assent should be obtained; and when so suspended, he has utterly neglected to attend to them.

He has refused to pass other laws for the accommodation of large districts of people, unless those people would relinquish the right of representation in the legislature—a right inestimable to them, and formidable to tyrants only.

He has called together legislative bodies at places unusual, uncomfortable, and distant from the depository of their public records, for the sole purpose of fatiguing them into compliance with his measures.

He has dissolved representative houses repeatedly for opposing, with manly firmness, his invasions on the rights of the people.

He has refused, for a long time after such dissolutions, to cause others to be elected, whereby the legislative powers, incapable of annihilation, have returned to the people at large for their exercise; the State remaining, in the meantime, exposed to all the dangers of invasion from without and convulsions within.

He has endeavored to prevent the population of these States; for that purpose obstructing the laws for naturalization of foreigners; refusing to pass others to encourage their migrations hither, and raising the conditions of new appropriations of lands.

He has obstructed the administration of justice by refusing his assent to laws for establishing judiciary powers.

He has made judges dependent on his will alone for the tenure of their offices, and the amount and payment of their salaries.

He has erected a multitude of new offices, and sent hither swarms of officers to harass our people and eat out their substance.

He has kept among us, in times of peace, standing armies, without the consent of our legislatures.

He has affected to render the military independent of, and superior to, the civil power.

He has combined with others to subject us to a jurisdiction foreign to our constitution, and unacknowledged by our laws; giving his assent to their acts of pretended legislation:

For quartering large bodies of armed troops among us:

For protecting them, by a mock trial, from punishment for any murders which they should commit on the inhabitants of these States:

For cutting off our trade with all parts of the world:

For imposing taxes on us without our consent:

For depriving us, in many cases, of the benefits of trial by jury:

For transporting us beyond seas to be tried for pretended offenses:

For abolishing the free system of English laws in a neighboring province, es-

tablishing therein an arbitrary government, and enlarging its boundaries, so as to render it at once an example and fit instrument for introducing the same absolute rule into these colonies:

For taking away our charters, abolishing our most valuable laws, and altering, fundamentally, the forms of our governments:

For suspending our own legislatures, and declaring themselves invested with power to legislate for us in all cases whatsoever.

He has abdicated government here by declaring us out of his protection, and waging war against us.

He has plundered our seas, ravaged our coasts, burnt our towns, and destroyed the lives of our people.

He is at this time transporting large armies of foreign mercenaries to complete the works of death, desolation, and tyranny, already begun with circumstances of cruelty and perfidy, scarcely paralleled in the most barbarous ages, and totally unworthy the head of a civilized nation.

He has constrained our fellow-citizens taken captive on the high seas, to bear arms against their country, to become the executioners of their friends and brethren, or to fall themselves by their hands.

He has excited domestic insurrections amongst us, and has endeavored to bring on the inhabitants of our frontiers the merciless Indian savages, whose known rule of warfare is an undistinguished destruction of all ages, sexes, and conditions.

In every stage of these oppressions we have petitioned for redress in the most humble terms: our repeated petitions have been answered only by repeated injury. A prince whose character is thus marked by every act which may define a tyrant, is unfit to be the ruler of a free people.

Nor have we been wanting in attentions to our British brethren. We have warned them, from time to time, of attempts by their legislature to extend an unwarrantable jurisdiction over us. We have reminded them of the circumstances of our emigration and settlement here. We have appealed to their native justice and magnanimity, and we have conjured them, by the ties of our common kindred, to disavow these usurpations, which would inevitably interrupt our connections and correspondence. They, too, have been deaf to the voice of justice and of consanguinity. We must, therefore, acquiesce in the necessity which denounces our separation, and hold them, as we hold the rest of mankind—enemies in war; in peace, friends.

We, therefore, the representatives of the UNITED STATES OF AMERICA, in General Congress assembled, appealing to the Supreme Judge of the world for the rectitude of our intentions, do, in the name and by authority of the good people of these colonies, solemnly publish and declare, That these united colonies are, and of right ought to be, *Free* and *Independent States;* that they are absolved from all allegiance to the British crown, and that all political connection between them and the State of Great Britain is, and ought to be, totally dissolved; and that, as *Free* and *Independent States*, they have full power

to levy war, conclude peace, contract alliances, establish commerce, and to do all other acts and things which *Independent States* may of right do. And for the support of this Declaration, with a firm reliance on the protection of DIVINE PROVIDENCE, we mutually pledge to each other our lives, our fortunes, and our sacred honor.

JOHN HANCOCK.

NEW HAMPSHIRE.—Josiah Bartlett, William Whipple, Matthew Thornton.

MASSACHUSETTS BAY.—Samuel Adams, John Adams, Robert Treat Paine, Elbridge Gerry.

RHODE ISLAND, ETC.—Stephen Hopkins, William Ellery.

CONNECTICUT.—Roger Sherman, Samuel Huntington, William Williams, Oliver Wolcott.

NEW YORK.—William Floyd, Philip Livingston, Francis Lewis, Lewis Morris.

NEW JERSEY.—Richard Stockton, John Witherspoon, Francis Hopkinson, John Hart, Abraham Clark.

PENNSYLVANIA.—Robert Morris, Benjamin Rush, Benjamin Franklin, John Morton, George Clymer, James Smith, George Taylor, James Wilson, George Ross.

DELAWARE.—Cæsar Rodney, George Read, Thomas M'Kean.

MARYLAND.—Samuel Chase, William Paca, Thomas Stone, Charles Carroll of Carrollton.

VIRGINIA.—George Wythe, Richard Henry Lee, Thomas Jefferson, Benjamin Harrison, Thomas Nelson, Jr., Francis Lightfoot Lee, Carter Braxton.

NORTH CAROLINA.—William Hooper, Joseph Hewes, John Penn.

SOUTH CAROLINA.—Edward Rutledge, Thomas Heyward, Jr., Thomas Lynch, Jr., Arthur Middleton.

GEORGIA.—Button Gwinnett, Lyman Hall, George Walton.

CONSTITUTION OF THE UNITED STATES OF AMERICA.

We, the people of the United States, in order to form a more perfect union, establish justice, insure domestic tranquillity, provide for the common defense, promote the general welfare, and secure the blessings of liberty to ourselves and our posterity, do ordain and establish this Constitution for the United States of America.

ARTICLE I. Section 1.—1. All legislative powers herein granted shall be vested in a Congress of the United States, which shall consist of a Senate and House of Representatives.

Section 2.—1. The House of Representatives shall be composed of members chosen every second year by the people of the several States; and the electors in each State shall have the qualifications requisite for electors of the most numerous branch of the State legislature.

2. No person shall be a Representative who shall not have attained to the age of twenty-five years, and been seven years a citizen of the United States, and who shall not, when elected, be an inhabitant of that State in which he shall be chosen.

3. Representatives and direct taxes shall be apportioned among the several States which may be included within this Union, according to their respective numbers, which shall be determined by adding to the whole number of free persons, including those bound to service for a term of years, and excluding Indians not taxed, three fifths of all other persons. The actual enumeration shall be made within three years after the first meeting of the Congress of the United States, and within every subsequent term of ten years, in such manner as they shall by law direct. The number of Representatives shall not exceed one for every thirty thousand, but each State shall have at least one Representative; and until such enumeration shall be made, the State of New Hampshire shall be entitled to choose three; Massachusetts, eight; Rhode Island and Providence Plantations, one; Connecticut, five; New York, six; New Jersey, four; Pennsylvania, eight; Delaware, one; Maryland, six; Virginia, ten; North Carolina, five; South Carolina, five; and Georgia, three.

4. When vacancies happen in the representation from any State, the executive authority thereof shall issue writs of election to fill such vacancies.

5. The House of Representatives shall choose their Speaker and other officers, and shall have the sole power of impeachment.

SECTION 3.—1. The Senate of the United States shall be composed of two Senators from each State, chosen by the legislature thereof, for six years; and each Senator shall have one vote.

2. Immediately after they shall be assembled in consequence of the first election, they shall be divided as equally as may be, into three classes. The seats of the Senators of the first class shall be vacated at the expiration of the second year, of the second class at the expiration of the fourth year, and of the third class at the expiration of the sixth year, so that one third may be chosen every second year; and if vacancies happen, by resignation or otherwise, during the recess of the legislature of any State, the Executive thereof may make temporary appointments until the next meeting of the legislature, which shall then fill such vacancies.

3. No person shall be a Senator who shall not have attained to the age of thirty years, and been nine years a citizen of the United States, and who shall not, when elected, be an inhabitant of that State for which he shall be chosen.

4. The Vice President of the United States shall be President of the Senate, but shall have no vote, unless they be equally divided.

5. The Senate shall choose their other officers, and also a president *pro tempore*, in the absence of the Vice President, or when he shall exercise the office of President of the United States.

6. The Senate shall have the sole power to try all impeachments. When sitting for that purpose, they shall be on oath or affirmation. When the President of the United States is tried, the Chief Justice shall preside; and no person shall be convicted without the concurrence of two thirds of the members present.

7. Judgment in cases of impeachment shall not extend further than to removal from office, and disqualification to hold and enjoy any office of honor, trust, or profit, under the United States; but the party convicted shall nevertheless be liable and subject to indictment, trial, judgment, and punishment, according to law.

SECTION 4.—1. The times, places, and manner of holding elections for Senators and Representatives shall be prescribed in each State by the legislature thereof; but the Congress may, at any time, by law, make or alter such regulations, except as to the places of choosing Senators.

2. The Congress shall assemble at least once in every year, and such meeting shall be on the first Monday in December, unless they shall by law appoint a different day.

SECTION 5.—1. Each House shall be the judge of the elections, returns, and qualifications of its own members, and a majority of each shall constitute a quorum to do business; but a smaller number may adjourn from day to day, and may be authorized to compel the attendance of absent members in such manner and under such penalties as each House may provide.

2. Each House may determine the rules of its proceedings, punish its members for disorderly behavior, and, with the concurrence of two thirds, expel a member.

3. Each House shall keep a journal of its proceedings, and from time to time publish the same, excepting such parts as may in their judgment require secrecy; and the yeas and nays of the members of either House, on any question, shall, at the desire of one fifth of those present, be entered on the journal.

4. Neither House, during the session of Congress, shall, without the consent of the other, adjourn for more than three days, nor to any other place than that in which the two Houses shall be sitting.

SECTION 6.—1. The Senators and Representatives shall receive a compensation for their services, to be ascertained by law, and paid out of the Treasury of the United States. They shall, in all cases except treason, felony, and breach of the peace, be privileged from arrest during their attendance at the session of their respective Houses, and in going to and returning from the same; and for any speech or debate in either House, they shall not be questioned in any other place.

2. No Senator or Representative shall, during the time for which he was elected, be appointed to any civil office under the authority of the United States which shall have been created, or the emoluments whereof shall have been increased, during such time; and no person holding any office under the United States shall be a member of either House during his continuance in office.

SECTION 7.—1. All bills for raising revenue shall originate in the House of Representatives; but the Senate may propose or concur with amendments, as on other bills.

2. Every bill which shall have passed the House of Representatives and the Senate, shall, before it become a law, be presented to the President of the United States; if he approve he shall sign it, but if not he shall return it with his objections to that House in which it shall have originated, who shall enter the objections at large on their journal, and proceed to reconsider it. If, after such reconsideration, two thirds of that House shall agree to pass the bill, it shall be sent, together with the objections, to the other House, by which it shall likewise be reconsidered, and if approved by two thirds of that House, it shall become a law. But in all such cases the votes of both Houses shall be determined by yeas and nays, and the names of the persons voting for and against the bill shall be entered on the journal of each House respectively. If any bill shall not be returned by the President within ten days (Sundays excepted) after it shall have been presented to him, the same shall be a law, in like manner as if he had signed it, unless the Congress, by their adjournment, prevent its return, in which case it shall not be a law.

3. Every order, resolution, or vote, to which the concurrence of the Senate and House of Representatives may be necessary (except on a question of adjournment) shall be presented to the President of the United States, and before the same shall take effect shall be approved by him, or, being disapproved by him, shall be re-passed by two thirds of the Senate and House of Representatives, according to the rules and limitations prescribed in the case of a bill.

SECTION 8.—The Congress shall have power—

1. To lay and collect taxes, duties, imposts, and excises, to pay the debts and

provide for the common defense and general welfare of the United States; but all duties, imposts, and excises shall be uniform throughout the United States;

2. To borrow money on the credit of the United States;

3. To regulate commerce with foreign nations, and among the several States, and with the Indian tribes;

4. To establish a uniform rule of naturalization, and uniform laws on the subject of bankruptcies throughout the United States;

5. To coin money, regulate the value thereof and of foreign coin, and fix the standard of weights and measures;

6. To provide for the punishment of counterfeiting the securities and current coin of the United States;

7. To establish post-offices and post-roads;

8. To promote the progress of science and useful arts, by securing for limited times to authors and inventors the exclusive right to their respective writings and discoveries;

9. To constitute tribunals inferior to the Supreme Court;

10. To define and punish piracies and felonies committed on the high seas, and offenses against the law of nations;

11. To declare war, grant letters of marque and reprisal, and make rules concerning captures on land and water;

12. To raise and support armies; but no appropriation of money to that use shall be for a longer term than two years;

13. To provide and maintain a navy;

14. To make rules for the government and regulation of the land and naval forces;

15. To provide for calling forth the militia to execute the laws of the Union, suppress insurrections, and repel invasions;

16. To provide for organizing, arming, and disciplining the militia, and for governing such part of them as may be employed in the service of the United States, reserving to the States respectively the appointment of the officers and the authority of training the militia according to the discipline prescribed by Congress;

17. To exercise exclusive legislation in all cases whatsoever over such district (not exceeding ten miles square) as may, by cession of particular States and the acceptance of Congress, become the seat of the government of the United States, and to exercise like authority over all places purchased by the consent of the legislature of the State in which the same shall be, for the erection of forts, magazines, arsenals, dock-yards, and other needful buildings; and,

18. To make all laws which shall be necessary and proper for carrying into execution the foregoing powers, and all other powers vested by this Constitution in the government of the United States, or in any department or officer thereof.

SECTION 9.—1. The migration or importation of such persons as any of the States now existing shall think proper to admit, shall not be prohibited by the Congress prior to the year one thousand eight hundred and eight, but a tax or

duty may be imposed on such importation, not exceeding ten dollars for each person.

2. The privilege of the writ of *habeas corpus* shall not be suspended, unless when in cases of rebellion or invasion the public safety may require it.

3. No bill of attainder or *ex post facto* law shall be passed.

4. No capitation or other direct tax shall be laid, unless in proportion to the census or enumeration hereinbefore directed to be taken.

5. No tax or duty shall be laid on articles exported from any State. No preference shall be given by any regulation of commerce or revenue to the ports of one State over those of another; nor shall vessels bound to or from one State be obliged to enter, clear, or pay duties in another.

6. No money shall be drawn from the treasury but in consequence of appropriations made by law; and a regular statement and account of the receipts and expenditures of all public money shall be published from time to time.

7. No title of nobility shall be granted by the United States; and no person holding any office of profit or trust under them, shall, without the consent of the Congress, accept of any present, emolument, office, or title, of any kind whatever, from any king, prince, or foreign state.

SECTION 10.—1. No State shall enter into any treaty, alliance, or confederation; grant letters of marque and reprisal; coin money; emit bills of credit; make anything but gold and silver coin a tender in payment of debts; pass any bill of attainder, *ex post facto* law, or law impairing the obligation of contracts, or grant any title of nobility.

2. No State shall, without the consent of the Congress, lay any imposts or duties on imports or exports except what may be absolutely necessary for executing its inspection laws: and the net produce of all duties and imposts laid by any State on imports or exports, shall be for the use of the treasury of the United States; and all such laws shall be subject to the revision and control of the Congress. No State shall, without the consent of Congress, lay any duty of tonnage, keep troops or ships of war in time of peace, enter into any agreement or compact with another State or with a foreign power, or engage in war, unless actually invaded, or in such imminent danger as will not admit of delay.

ARTICLE II. SECTION 1.—1. The executive power shall be vested in a President of the United States of America. He shall hold his office during the term of four years, and, together with the Vice President, chosen for the same term, be elected as follows:

2. Each State shall appoint, in such manner as the legislature thereof may direct, a number of Electors equal to the whole number of Senators and Representatives to which the State may be entitled in the Congress; but no Senator or Representative, or person holding an office of trust or profit under the United States, shall be appointed an Elector.

Clause 3 has been superseded by the 12th Article of Amendments.

4. The Congress may determine the time of choosing the Electors, and the day on which they shall give their votes; which day shall be the same throughout the United States.

5. No person, except a natural-born citizen, or a citizen of the United States at the time of the adoption of this Constitution, shall be eligible to the office of President; neither shall any person be eligible to that office who shall not have attained to the age of thirty-five years, and been fourteen years a resident within the United States.

6. In case of the removal of the President from office, or of his death, resignation, or inability to discharge the powers and duties of said office, the same shall devolve on the Vice President; and the Congress may by law provide for the case of removal, death, resignation, or inability, both of the President and Vice President, declaring what officer shall then act as President, and such officer shall act accordingly, until the disability be removed or a President shall be elected.

7. The President shall, at stated times, receive for his services a compensation, which shall neither be increased nor diminished during the period for which he shall have been elected, and he shall not receive within that period any other emolument from the United States, or any of them.

8. Before he enter on the execution of his office, he shall take the following oath or affirmation:

"I do solemnly swear (or affirm) that I will faithfully execute the office of President of the United States, and will, to the best of my ability, preserve, protect, and defend the Constitution of the United States."

SECTION 2.—1. The President shall be commander in chief of the army and navy of the United States, and of the militia of the several States when called into the actual service of the United States; he may require the opinion, in writing, of the principal officer in each of the executive departments, upon any subject relating to the duties of their respective offices, and he shall have power to grant reprieves and pardons for offenses against the United States, except in cases of impeachment.

2. He shall have power, by and with the advice and consent of the Senate, to make treaties, provided two thirds of the Senators present concur; and he shall nominate, and by and with the advice and consent of the Senate, shall appoint Embassadors, other public Ministers and Consuls, Judges of the Supreme Court, and all other officers of the United States, whose appointments are not herein otherwise provided for, and which shall be established by law; but the Congress may by law vest the appointment of such inferior officers as they think proper, in the President alone, in the Courts of law, or in the heads of Departments.

3. The President shall have power to fill up all vacancies that may happen during the recess of the Senate, by granting commissions which shall expire at the end of their next session.

SECTION 3.—He shall, from time to time, give to the Congress information of the state of the Union, and recommend to their consideration such measures as he shall judge necessary and expedient; he may, on extraordinary occasions, convene both Houses, or either of them, and in case of disagreement between them with respect to the time of adjournment, he may adjourn them to such

time as he shall think proper; he shall receive Embassadors and other public Ministers; he shall take care that the laws be faithfully executed, and shall commission all the officers of the United States.

SECTION 4.—The President, Vice President, and all civil officers of the United States, shall be removed from office on impeachment for, and conviction of, treason, bribery, or other high crimes and misdemeanors.

ARTICLE III. SECTION 1.—The judicial power of the United States shall be vested in one Supreme Court, and in such inferior Courts as the Congress may from time to time ordain and establish. The Judges, both of the Supreme and inferior Courts, shall hold their offices during good behavior, and shall, at stated times, receive for their services a compensation which shall not be diminished during their continuance in office.

SECTION 2.—1. The judicial power shall extend to all cases in law and equity arising under this Constitution, the laws of the United States, and treaties made, or which shall be made, under their authority; to all cases affecting Embassadors, other public Ministers, and Consuls; to all cases of admiralty and maritime jurisdiction; to controversies to which the United States shall be a party; to controversies between two or more States; between a State and citizens of another State; between citizens of different States; between citizens of the same State claiming lands under grants of different States; and between a State, or the citizens thereof, and foreign states, citizens, or subjects.

2. In all cases affecting Embassadors, other public Ministers, and Consuls, and those in which a State shall be a party, the Supreme Court shall have original jurisdiction. In all the other cases before mentioned, the Supreme Court shall have appellate jurisdiction, both as to law and fact, with such exceptions and under such regulations as the Congress shall make.

3. The trial of all crimes, except in cases of impeachment, shall be by jury; and such trial shall be held in the State where the said crimes shall have been committed; but when not committed within any State, the trial shall be at such place or places as the Congress may by law have directed.

SECTION 3.—1. Treason against the United States shall consist only in levying war against them, or in adhering to their enemies, giving them aid and comfort. No person shall be convicted of treason unless on the testimony of two witnesses to the same overt act, or on confession in open court.

2. The Congress shall have power to declare the punishment of treason, but no attainder of treason shall work corruption of blood, or forfeiture, except during the life of the person attainted.

ARTICLE IV. SECTION 1.—Full faith and credit shall be given in each State to the public acts, records, and judicial proceedings of every other State. And the Congress may, by general laws, prescribe the manner in which such acts, records, and proceedings shall be proved, and the effect thereof.

SECTION 2.—1. The citizens of each State shall be entitled to all privileges and immunities of citizens in the several States.

2. A person charged in any State with treason, felony, or other crime, who

shall flee from justice, and be found in another State, shall, on demand of the executive authority of the State from which he fled, be delivered up, to be removed to the State having jurisdiction of the crime.

3. No person held to service or labor in one State, under the laws thereof, escaping into another, shall, in consequence of any law or regulation therein, be discharged from such service or labor, but shall be delivered up on claim of the party to whom such service or labor may be due.

SECTION 3.—1. New States may be admitted by the Congress into this Union; but no new State shall be formed or erected within the jurisdiction of any other State; nor any State be formed by the junction of two or more States, or parts of States, without the consent of the legislatures of the States concerned as well as of the Congress.

2. The Congress shall have power to dispose of and make all needful rules and regulations respecting the territory or other property belonging to the United States; and nothing in this Constitution shall be so construed as to prejudice any claims of the United States or of any particular State.

SECTION 4.—The United States shall guarantee to every State in this Union a republican form of government, and shall protect each of them against invasion; and, on application of the legislature, or of the Executive (when the legislature can not be convened) against domestic violence.

ARTICLE V.—The Congress, whenever two thirds of both Houses shall deem it necessary, shall propose Amendments to this Constitution, or, on the application of the legislatures of two thirds of the several States, shall call a convention for proposing Amendments, which, in either case, shall be valid to all intents and purposes as part of this Constitution, when ratified by the legislatures of three fourths of the several States, or by conventions in three fourths thereof, as the one or the other mode of ratification may be proposed by the Congress: provided, that no Amendment which may be made prior to the year one thousand eight hundred and eight shall in any manner affect the first and fourth clauses in the ninth section of the first article; and that no State, without its consent, shall be deprived of its equal suffrage in the Senate.

ARTICLE VI.—1. All debts contracted and engagements entered into, before the adoption of this Constitution, shall be as valid against the United States under this Constitution as under the Confederation.

2. This Constitution, and the laws of the United States which shall be made in pursuance thereof, and all treaties made, or which shall be made, under the authority of the United States, shall be the supreme law of the land; and the judges in every State shall be bound thereby, anything in the constitution or laws of any State to the contrary notwithstanding.

3. The Senators and Representatives before mentioned, and the members of the several State legislatures, and all executive and judicial officers, both of the United States and of the several States, shall be bound by oath or affirmation to support this Constitution; but no religious test shall ever be required as a qualification to any office or public trust under the United States.

ARTICLE VII.—The ratification of the Conventions of nine States shall be sufficient for the establishment of this Constitution between the States so ratifying the same.

AMENDMENTS TO THE CONSTITUTION.

ARTICLE I.—Congress shall make no law respecting an establishment of religion, or prohibiting the free exercise thereof; or abridging the freedom of speech or of the press; or the right of the people peaceably to assemble, and to petition the government for a redress of grievances.

ARTICLE II.—A well-regulated militia being necessary to the security of a free state, the right of the people to keep and bear arms shall not be infringed.

ARTICLE III.—No soldier shall, in time of peace, be quartered in any house without the consent of the owner, nor in time of war, but in a manner to be prescribed by law.

ARTICLE IV.—The right of the people to be secure in their persons, houses, papers, and effects, against unreasonable searches and seizures, shall not be violated, and no warrants shall issue, but upon probable cause, supported by oath or affirmation, and particularly describing the place to be searched, and the persons or things to be seized.

ARTICLE V.—No person shall be held to answer for a capital or otherwise infamous crime, unless on a presentment or indictment of a grand jury, except in cases arising in the land or naval forces, or in the militia when in actual service in time of war or public danger; nor shall any person be subject for the same offense to be twice put in jeopardy of life or limb; nor shall be compelled in any criminal case to be a witness against himself; nor be deprived of life, liberty, or property, without due process of law; nor shall private property be taken for public use without just compensation.

ARTICLE VI.—In all criminal prosecutions, the accused shall enjoy the right to a speedy and public trial, by an impartial jury of the State and district wherein the crime shall have been committed, which district shall have been previously ascertained by law, and to be informed of the nature and cause of the accusation; to be confronted with the witnesses against him; to have compulsory process for obtaining witnesses in his favor, and to have the assistance of counsel for his defense.

ARTICLE VII.—In suits at common law where the value in controversy shall exceed twenty dollars, the right of trial by jury shall be preserved, and no fact tried by a jury shall be otherwise re-examined in any Court of the United States, than according to the rules of the common law.

ARTICLE VIII.—Excessive bail shall not be required, nor excessive fines imposed, nor cruel and unusual punishments inflicted.

ARTICLE IX.—The enumeration in the Constitution of certain rights shall not be construed to deny or disparage others retained by the people.

ARTICLE X.—The powers not delegated to the United States by the Constitution, nor prohibited by it to the States, are reserved to the States respectively, or to the people.

ARTICLE XI.—The judicial power of the United States shall not be construed to extend to any suit in law or equity, commenced or prosecuted against one of the United States by citizens of another State, or by citizens or subjects of any foreign state.

ARTICLE XII.—The electors shall meet in their respective States, and vote by ballot for President and Vice President, one of whom, at least, shall not be an inhabitant of the same State with themselves; they shall name in their ballots the person voted for as President, and in distinct ballots the person voted for as Vice President, and they shall make distinct lists of all persons voted for as President, and of all persons voted for as Vice President, and of the number of votes for each, which lists they shall sign and certify, and transmit sealed to the seat of the government of the United States, directed to the President of the Senate. The President of the Senate shall, in the presence of the Senate and House of Representatives, open all the certificates, and the votes shall then be counted; the person having the greatest number of votes for President shall be the President, if such number be a majority of the whole number of Electors appointed; and if no person have such majority, then from the persons having the highest numbers, not exceeding three, on the list of those voted for as President, the House of Representatives shall choose immediately, by ballot, the President. But in choosing the President, the votes shall be taken by States, the representation from each State having one vote; a quorum for this purpose shall consist of a member or members from two thirds of the States, and a majority of all the States shall be necessary to a choice. And if the House of Representatives shall not choose a President, whenever the right of choice shall devolve upon them, before the fourth day of March next following, then the Vice President shall act as President, as in the case of the death or other constitutional disability of the President. The person having the greatest number of votes as Vice President shall be the Vice President, if such number be a majority of the whole number of Electors appointed; and if no person have a majority, then from the two highest numbers on the list the Senate shall choose the Vice President; a quorum for the purpose shall consist of two thirds of the whole number of Senators, and a majority of the whole number shall be necessary to a choice. But no person constitutionally ineligible to the office of President shall be eligible to that of Vice President of the United States.

ARTICLE XIII.—1. Neither Slavery nor involuntary servitude, except as a punishment for crime, whereof the party shall have been duly convicted, shall exist within the United States, or any place subject to their jurisdiction.

2. Congress shall have power to enforce this article by appropriate legislation.

ARTICLE XIV.—1. All persons born or naturalized in the United States, and subject to the jurisdiction thereof, are citizens of the United States and of the State wherein they reside. No State shall make or enforce any law which

shall abridge the privileges or immunities of citizens of the United States; nor shall any State deprive any person of life, liberty, or property, without due process of law, nor deny to any person within its jurisdiction the equal protection of the laws.

2. Representatives shall be apportioned among the several States according to their respective numbers, counting the whole number of persons in each State, excluding Indians not taxed. But when the right to vote at any election for the choice of Electors for President and Vice President of the United States, Representatives in Congress, the executive and judicial officers of a State, or the members of the legislature thereof, is denied to any of the male inhabitants of such State, being twenty-one years of age, and citizens of the United States, or in any way abridged, except for participation in rebellion or other crime, the basis of representation therein shall be reduced in the proportion which the number of such male citizens shall bear to the whole number of male citizens twenty-one years of age in such State.

3. No person shall be a Senator or Representative in Congress, or Elector of President or Vice President, or hold any office, civil or military, under the United States, or under any State, who, having previously taken an oath, as a member of Congress, or as an officer of the United States, or as a member of any State legislature, or as an executive or judicial officer of any State, to support the Constitution of the United States, shall have engaged in insurrection or rebellion against the same, or given aid or comfort to the enemies thereof. But Congress may, by a vote of two thirds of each House, remove such disability.

4. The validity of the public debt of the United States, authorized by law, including debts incurred for payment of pensions and bounties for services in suppressing insurrection or rebellion, shall not be questioned. But neither the United States nor any State shall assume or pay any debt or obligation incurred in aid of insurrection or rebellion against the United States, or any claim for the loss or emancipation of any slave; but all such debts, obligations, and claims shall be held illegal and void.

5. The Congress shall have power to enforce, by appropriate legislation, the provisions of this article.

ARTICLE XV.—1. The right of citizens of the United States to vote shall not be denied or abridged by the United States, or by any State, on account of race, color, or previous condition of servitude.

2. The Congress shall have power to enforce this article by appropriate legislation.

SETTLEMENT AND ADMISSION OF THE STATES.

States.	Settlement.			Date of Admission.
	Date.	Place.	By Whom Settled.	
Alabama,	1702	Mobile Bay,	French,	1819
Arkansas,	1685	Arkansas Post,	French,	1836
California,	1769	San Diego,	Spaniards,	1850
Colorado,	1859	Denver,	Americans,	1876
Connecticut,	1633	Windsor,	English,	1788*
Delaware,	1638	Wilmington,	Swedes,	1787*
Florida,	1565	St. Augustine,	Spaniards,	1845
Georgia,	1733	Savannah,	English,	1788*
Idaho,	1842	Cœur de Alêne,	Americans,	1890
Illinois,	1682 (?)	Kaskaskia,	French,	1818
Indiana,	1719 (?)	Vincennes,	French,	1816
Iowa,	1833	Burlington,	English,	1846
Kansas,	1854	Leavenworth,	Americans,	1861
Kentucky,	1775	Boonesboro,	English,	1792
Louisiana,	1718	New Orleans,	French,	1812
Maine,	1625	Bristol,	French,	1820
Maryland,	1634	St. Marys,	English,	1788*
Massachusetts,	1620	Plymouth,	English,	1788*
Michigan,	1701	Detroit,	French,	1837
Minnesota,	1846 (?)	St. Paul,	Americans,	1858
Mississippi,	1699	Biloxi,	French,	1817
Missouri,	1755	St. Genevieve,	French,	1821
Montana,	1809	Yellowstone River,	Americans,	1889
Nebraska,	1847	Bellevue,	Americans,	1867
Nevada,	1850	Genoa,	Americans,	1864
New Hampshire,	1623	Portsmouth,	English,	1788*
New Jersey,	1664	Elizabethtown,	English,	1787*
New York,	1614	New York,	Dutch,	1788*
North Carolina,	1663	Albemarle Sound,	English,	1789*
North Dakota,	1812	Pembino,	English,	1889
Ohio,	1788	Marietta,	Americans,	1803
Oregon,	1811	Astoria,	Americans,	1859
Pennsylvania,	1682 (?)	Philadelphia,	English,	1787*
Rhode Island,	1636	Providence,	English,	1790*
South Carolina,	1670	Ashley River,	English,	1788*
South Dakota,	1859	S. E. part,	Americans,	1889
Tennessee,	1757	Fort Loudoun,	English,	1796
Texas,	1685	Matagorda Bay,	Spaniards,	1845
Utah,	1847	Salt Lake City,	Americans,	1896
Vermont,	1724	Fort Dummer,	English,	1791
Virginia,	1607	Jamestown,	English,	1788*
Washington,	1811	Columbia River,	English and Americans,	1889
West Virginia,	1764	Upshur Co.,	Americans,	1863
Wisconsin,	1745	Green Bay,	French,	1848
Wyoming,	1867	Cheyenne,	Americans,	1890

* Admitted on ratifying the Constitution of the United States.

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